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ABSTRACT

The status and future of academic advising is examined in this American College Testing Program (ACT) monograph, providing an in-depth look at the topics consistently viewed as critical to the success of advising programs. In chapter 1, Wesley R. Habley introduces the monograph by examining the trends in advising over the past 15 years, focusing on current problems and areas with potential for change. In chapter 2, "The Third ACT National Survey of Academic Advising," Habley and David S. Crockett analyze data drawn from a national sample (n=447) of two- and four-year public and private institutions, while in chapter 3, "What Students Think about Academic Advising," Julie Noble uses findings from the same ACT survey to compare student responses at two-year, four-year public, and four-year private institutions. Chapters 4 through 8 focus on practical approaches to and components of academic advising services. The chapters present "Developmental Advising," by Virginia N. Gordon; "The Organization of Advising Services," by Habley; "Advising Delivery Systems," by Margaret C. King; "Advisor Training," by Michael Keller; and "Evaluating and Rewarding Advisors," by Crockett. In chapter 9, "Concerning Changes in Advising," Sara C. Looney looks at the role of advisors as change agents. "Exemplary Academic Advising Programs" are explored by Diana Saluri and Habley in chapter 10, which includes brief synopses of programs of 71 institutions. Finally, chapter 11 provides a 105-item bibliography compiled and selectively annotated by Habley and Lois Renter. (JMC)

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The Status and Future of ACADEMIC ADVISING

Problems and Promise

Edited by
Wesley R. Habley

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ACT

The ACT National Center
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May 1988

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Foreward

The Status and Future of Academic Advising represents the long-term and comprehensive commitment by the American College Testing Program to the topic of academic advising on college and university campuses. Since its inception in 1959, ACT has held as one of its major thrusts the development of better tools to assist students in the transition from high school to college.

This commitment has been demonstrated by multiple approaches to supporting advising and advisors. Through presentations at association meetings, a series of national and regional seminars on advising and, most recently, the inauguration of the ACT Summer Institute on Academic Advising, ACT staff members have endeavored to share the latest concepts in advising with audiences throughout the nation. In addition, ACT staff have administered and published the results of three national surveys on advising, developed the widely used Academic Advising Audit, and, under the direction of David S. Crockett, published and disseminated the monograph Advising Skills, Techniques and Resources. Finally, ACT has collaborated with the National Academic Advising Association (NACADA) in a comprehensive program to recognize both outstanding advisors and quality institutional advising programs.

Continuing evidence of commitment is demonstrated with the publication of The Status and Future of Academic Advising. This volume is intended to complement other ACT publications on academic advising by providing the reader with an in-depth look at the topics consistently viewed as critical to the success of advising programs.

I would particularly like to thank the external authors and the myriad of ACT staff members who participated in the design and production of the monograph. The ACT National Center staff has been totally supportive of this effort from beginning concept to final publication. All of the burden of final editing has been shouldered by Diana Saluri. Her work has been both untiring and complete.

In addition, I would like to thank David S. Crockett who, more than a decade ago, stimulated me to critically examine the topic of advising, who throughout that decade helped sustain a vision for the future of advising, and who now has become a valued colleague.

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Finally, whatever our achievements, they are unquestionably a product of affectionate people who nurture our aspirations and urge us into the future by their expressed faith in our capacities. In that context, I would like to thank my family for building a personal support system second to none.

May 1988: W.R.H.

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David S. Crockett is vice-president for public affairs at the American College Testing Program. He received his B.A. degree (1957) in history and physical education from Ohio Wesleyan University and his M.A. degree (1958) in higher education from the University of Maryland. He has been a teacher, campus/agency administrator, and lecturer in higher education. He is a nationally recognized authority on the subject of academic advising in colleges and universities and has done extensive reviews of the literature and research on documents designed to assist college personnel in improving the advising process. He has also authored several articles including two national surveys on academic advising. Crockett was the recipient for ACT of the First Research Award for Outstanding Contribution to the Field of Academic Advising from the National Academic Advising Association. He has directed nearly fifty national academic advising seminars and presented the keynote address at the Second Annual National Academic Advising Conference. In addition, he has served as a speaker on academic advising at numerous educational meetings and campus training programs for academic advisors.

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advising at a public university. Looney continues to be active in the Council for the Advancement of Standards for Student Services/Development Programs. She is currently on the executive committee of that organization.

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Lois Renter is head librarian at the American College Testing Program. She received her B.A. degree (1965) from Cornell College and an M.A. in Library Science (1968) from the University of Iowa. She has also been a part-time visiting lecturer in the School of Library and Information Science at the University of Iowa. She has compiled and annotated bibliographies on academic advising, college student retention, the undecided student, and many other topics in education.

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CHAPTER 1

Introduction and Overview

Wesley R. Habley

Unorthodox as it may seem to the reader, I have consciously chosen to take advantage of editorial license and violate at least two standard writing practices in this introduction and overview of The Status and Future of Academic Advising: Problems and Promise. First, because this chapter represents a personal commentary, deeply rooted in 15 years of trials, tribulations, and successes in working with academic advising, I will lapse into a first person and informal style more than occasionally. Second, in a move which may seem like putting the cart before the horse, I am beginning this monograph with a set of eight recommendations. Those recommendations are:

1. Conduct a thorough assessment of the current state of the campus advising program.

2. Identify one person whose primary responsibility is to coordinate academic advising.

3. Implement an advisor selection process.

4. Develop a comprehensive advisor pre-service and in-service development program.

5. Develop a scheme for individual advisor evaluation.

6. Implement an advisor incentive or reward program.

7. Review the total advising program every five years.

8. Conduct research aimed at improving the advising program.

To readers who have been involved with academic advising for a decade or more, there may very well be a familiar ring to these recommendations. Indeed there should be! They paraphrase recommendations developed by Tom Grites in the final section of his monograph Academic Advising: Getting Us Through the Eighties published by the ERIC Clearinghouse on Higher Education in 1979. What

strikes me about these recommendations and the thoughts they evoke is that they are as timely today as they were nearly a decade ago. They represent much of the latest critical thinking about the function of academic advising.

As I read and reread Grites' recommendations, I had the gnawing feeling that to many readers these recurring themes may be indicative of an inability to improve the status of academic advising in our colleges and universities. If one reviews the prevailing thoughts on advising over the last three decades, it would be rather easy to conclude that little has been accomplished. In the 1950s, Esther Lloyd-Jones (1954, p.51) discussed the advising function in a book on the involvement of faculty in student development: "Because advisors are either unskilled in personnel techniques or have no interest in the student except as an intellect. . . advising consequently becomes a mere clerical routine of program planning."

Although there were individuals during the '50s who felt that advising should be more than mundane and clerical, this common position on the advising function continued into the 1960s. The standard attitude toward advising in the sixties was contained in the 1969 publication Handbook of College and University Administration edited by Asa Knowles. "Students complain that advisors do not know the curriculum and advisors complain that they serve no useful function other than that of a clerk who signs cards." (p. 2-22)

As higher education emerged from the turbulent decade of the '60s, O'Banion (1972) articulated a five-stage paradigm for academic advising and Crookston (1972) contributed a seminal article on developmental academic advising. Each of these articles provided a glimpse of what academic advising could become. Yet although the suggestions made in these two landmark contributions were embraced by some, they were implemented by few. They were seen primarily as theoretical visions rather than as guides for practical action. The decade of the seventies ended with Walsh (1979, p. 447) suggesting that the common perception of the advisor's role was "to keep records of students' progress toward their degree and to make sure that students have fulfilled both college and major requirements." And, when Toni Trombley, the first president of the National Academic Advising Association (NACADA), addressed the National Conference of the American Association for Higher Education in 1980, she stated: "Some faculty may not have or be interested in developing the skills and knowledge necessary to become excellent advisors." The decade of the seventies also closed with a report on the first national survey of campus practices in academic advising. (Carstensen and Silberhorn, 1979). Among the conclusions of this national status report, were the following:

- Generally, academic advising has been and still is perceived by administration as a low-status function.

- Those responsible for the delivery of academic advising services see advising as an event addressing the informational needs of students rather than an integral part of the student's total development, interacting with career and life planning.

- There are few effective systems in place for the evaluation of academic advising and little reward or recognition attached to its successful delivery.

- Generally, institutions have no comprehensive statement of policy regarding the delivery of academic advising. This may be indicative of a lack of a clear sense of institutional mission in delivering this service.

- All of postsecondary education is communicating an increased interest in the academic advising function. This has not yet been translated into practice to any great extent. However, a new and still very small population of "professional" advisors is emerging.

Similar conclusions were drawn in 1983 when Crockett and Levitz replicated the 1979 study. That is, with the exception of an increase in the number of institutions which had developed policy statements, few strides had been made in the status, purpose, evaluation, and recognition factors associated with a quality advising program.

Although not a replication of the first two surveys, data from the ACT Third National Survey of Academic Advising (Habley, Crockett, and Cowart, 1987) indicate only slight, but positive change has taken place in advising. As reported in Chapter 2 of this monograph, the status of two critical elements of quality advising can best be described as status quo.

First, the concept of developmental advising appears to be no more widely embraced today than it was in the early '80s. The means for the eight goals for advising, anchored in the concept of developmental advising, show only minor fluctuations from the 1983 Survey of Academic Advising. The data from this representative sample of colleges and universities indicates that developmental advising is still more prominent in theory than it is in practice.

Second, the most significant methods by which advising can be improved are seen as both the least effective and the least improved areas in the organization and administration of campus advising programs. Training, accountability, evaluation, and recognition/reward are the cornerstones of performance in every field or job. Yet, those cornerstones continue to be stumbling blocks in most advising programs.

Certainly then, if one were to judge the efficacy of academic advising on the basis of its prominence and status over the last three decades, there would be little of a positive nature to communicate in this monograph. That is however, precisely why this monograph focuses not only on the status and problems of academic advising, but also on its promise and future. It is the potential of advising that generates my enthusiasm and optimism.

To fully understand this optimism, it is necessary to divert our attention from a focus on academic advising to a focus on change; more specifically change in higher education. Consider for a moment the following steps in a generic change model:

Awareness of a Problem - a sense that something is wrong.

Problem Identification - locating the source of what it is that is wrong.

Generating Alternatives - identifying a workable array of ways to deal with what is wrong.

Selecting an Alternative - deciding which of the alternatives is most likely to alleviate the problem.

Implementation - activating the selected alternative.

Evaluation - gathering useful information which helps us decide whether or not the selected alternative is producing the desired outcomes.

Relying on this generic change model, I share four propositions on change in higher education as they relate to academic advising. The ultimate truth of these propositions will probably never be known. They are, however, based on a combination of intuition, personal experience, and a thorough (but not exhaustive) study of advising issues.

Proposition Number One: Accomplishing change in higher education is a slow laborious, painful, frustrating process. Indeed, paraphrasing Clark Kerr, accomplishing change in institutions of higher education is like trying to move a cemetery! With tongue in cheek, we can say that accomplishing meaningful change in higher education is a sensitive process which leaves no stone unturned, deals with all the skeletons in the closet, and requires a great deal of earth-moving.

As an example of higher education's slowness to accept change, look back to 1958. Following the launching of Sputnik, a hue and cry went out across America to increase the production of personnel necessary for us to compete in the race for space. Only after federal incentives were in place did higher education respond by taking three years to get the message, taking three more years to gear

up, and taking still another three years to appreciably increase the supply of graduates necessary to meet the needs of the space complex. Higher education took almost a decade to respond to the needs of the aerospace industry. But, by 1972, priorities were changing and the space industry began a backslide. Once again, it took higher education nearly a decade to respond, this time to a reduced demand for space technologists.

There is a parallel example in the area of teacher training. About the time that higher education responded to accusations of over-production of teachers by reducing teacher training programs, we began to experience critical teaching shortages in mathematics, the sciences, and in technical areas. And, these reductions, when coupled with changing demographics, may very well lead to critical shortages in qualified elementary teachers in the early '90s and similar shortages of secondary teachers by the turn of the century.

Contrast this slowness to change with the development of the field of academic advising. Clearly, the decade of the '80s has seen a dramatic surge of interest in the field of academic advising. I originally intended to report thoroughly on those developments in this introduction, but I soon discovered that attempting to chronicle the accomplishments would be an impossible task. Suffice it to say that the number of articles, monographs, books, conferences, workshops, research efforts, and dialogues on the topic of academic advising since 1975 probably exceeds the totality of such efforts prior to that year. Many of these efforts have been spearheaded by and received focus from the National Academic Advising Association (NACADA), an organization approaching its tenth anniversary, growing at a dramatic rate, and providing ever-increasing support to its membership.

But, back to my first proposition which is that accomplishing change in higher education is a slow process. That is precisely the point! Perhaps we in the field of academic advising, energized by all that has taken place, confident in all that we have learned, and armed with the conviction that academic advising can make a difference in the lives of students we serve, have failed to recognize and, more importantly, to successfully cope with the slowness of the change process in higher education. As a result, we become frustrated, co-opted, burned out. It is my contention that our successes are as likely to be based on our understanding of and patience with change on the campus as they are to be based on our grasp of key concepts in academic advising. Although many aphorisms, proverbs, and adages come to mind, none seems more applicable than this one attributed to Hyman Rickover:

> Good ideas are not adopted automatically. They must be driven into practice with courageous patience.

Clearly, we have the good ideas. But, those ideas must be accompanied by patience and courage if we are to function effectively as agents for change in the advising programs on our campuses. If quality advising is our destination, then patience must be our vehicle.

Proposition Number Two: Accomplishing lasting change on a college campus is a normative process. In support of this proposition, I would suggest that because of the diversity, both within an institution and among institutions, there are no unilateral responses nor monolithic solutions to problems related to academic advising. A campus is truly a pluralistic environment where diversity in opinion and attitudes prevails. Blake, Moulton, and Williams (1982, p. 284) illustrate this pluralism.

> A university is far more than a mosaic of individuals held together within a hierarchical framework. Rather, it is an institution with its own history and characteristic expectations of itself, and with its own typical way of doing things. Institutional culture can be a great impediment to change. In a particular, real sense, no single individual, whether president, vice-president for academic affairs, dean, department chair, or administrative secretary, 'owns' the institution's culture. It is owned by everyone, controlled by no one.

Because the institution's culture is owned by everyone, it logically follows that lasting change does not or cannot take place by fiat, coup, or dictum. Lasting change is accomplished only when individuals within the institution, and particularly those most affected by the change, understand the need for change, develop ownership by virtue of participation in the planning for change, and become involved in the implementation of change.

In addition to understanding the role of the institution's culture in the change process, it is also necessary to gain an appreciation of the impact that change has on individuals within the institution. Sayles (1964, p. 183) suggests that: "All changes percolate through an organization. Most resistance to them revolves around anxieties about status, power, and influence, and the potential threat to established routines, group norms, and expectations."

It is only when we begin to understand the relationship between institutional culture and individual need dispositions, that we also begin to understand the enormity of the task of bringing about normative change in an institution's academic advising program. The expectation that we can affect change in the advising program without understanding the institution's culture and without having an appreciation for the way in which change will affect an individual's established routines, group norms, and expectations is at best a naive, and at worst, a counter-productive expectation.

In a sense then, the first two propositions converge. If we are to achieve meaningful and lasting change in our advising programs, we must have the patience and the courage to build strategies for normative change which take into account the institution's culture and the status, power, and influence needs of those involved in advising. Successful strategies require the careful blending of these variables to the extent that proposed enhancements in advising are understood and supported by the individuals who are called upon to implement them. And, I suggest, that despite the enormous investment of time and energy required, normative change is the most powerful way to achieve successful and lasting results.

Proposition Number Three: At the macro (national) level, there has been little overall improvement in the field of academic advising. Three carefully constructed ACT national surveys indicate little change has taken place in the perceived effectiveness of advising services during the last decade. As I suggested earlier, however, this may not be reason for pessimism. Reverting back to the generic change model, I suggest that academic advising at the national level has passed the awareness and problem identification stages and is fixed (temporarily, I hope) at the stages of generating and selecting alternatives. And I find this to be reason for optimism. It is highly probable that the proliferation of interest in academic advising, growing since 1975, has yet to yield its most positive nation-wide outcomes.

Additionally, it must be noted that sampling techniques used in the national surveys ensure that both institutional types and the overall sample were representative of campuses nationally. As a result, the sample included institutions where there was quality advising, where there was poor advising, where there was virtually no advising. It included institutions where no one has ever heard of NACADA, where no one has ever seriously thought about academic advising, where no one has a responsibility for advising, where no one has ever attended an advisor training program, etc.

Assuming that you have followed and somewhat agree with the first two propositions, you will probably embrace the following line of thought:

> IF accomplishing change in higher education is a slow process and
>
> IF accomplishing change on a college campus is a normative process,
>
> THEN changes in advising's national picture must be evaluated in terms of their incremental directionality.

More simply, my optimism for the future of academic advising is based on the notion that we are moving in the right direction even though that movement is taking place in small increments. Data from the ACT Third National Survey indicate that positive change has taken place and, I would assert, such change has

taken place in an environment in which change is characteristically difficult to achieve except over long periods of time. These incremental changes provide the foundation for my optimism.

Proposition Number Four: At the micro (campus) level, very significant changes have taken place in advising programs. In 1975, if one were to attempt to identify exemplary programs in academic advising, it would have been a nearly impossible task. When I first became a director of academic advising in 1975, it took almost two years before I was able to locate an individual with a title and function similar to mine. . .and I looked hard for those two years! Today, there are not only exemplary advising programs, there are exemplary programs for underprepared students, exemplary programs for exploratory/undecided students, exemplary faculty advising programs, exemplary advising centers, exemplary advising/orientation courses, exemplary advising information systems, etc. In less than 15 years, individual campuses have moved from the point of awareness to the point of implementation and evaluation of significant enhancements in advising programs. Those campuses have orchestrated the change process involved in improving the quality of advising services provided to students. Indeed, at the campus level, many significant enhancements in academic advising have taken place. These accomplishments form the true basis for optimism for it is on the campus level where students, the direct beneficiaries of quality advising, are served.

This Monograph

It has long been a goal of mine to write or edit a monograph which would enable an individual to grasp, in both theory and practice, the basic components of a quality academic advising program. The organization of the monograph would closely parallel the generic change model presented earlier in this chapter. That is, it would provide readers with an awareness, and assist them in the identification of problems, the generation and selection of alternatives, and in the implementation and evaluation processes. Because of institutional and individual diversity, the book would stop short of providing a recipe for successful advising on all campuses, for all students, forever. The monograph would address key issues, present alternatives, and assist the reader in designing strategies for improving academic advising. And, most importantly, the monograph would provide the reader with the best possible information for application to advising problems on the campus in which that reader must function.

In an attempt to fulfill that goal, and in the spirit of optimism, I join several skilled and experienced practitioners in presenting this monograph. Chapters 2, 3, and 4 deal primarily with the awareness and problem identification stages of the generic change model. Chapter 2 focuses on the analysis of results from the ACT Third National Survey of Academic Advising. The analysis includes descriptions of

advising programs and discussion of advising in academic departments and advising offices, and the goals and effectiveness of advising programs.

Because quality advising never loses sight of students, Chapter 3 by Julie Noble provides a review of student opinions of academic advising and is based on the most recent normative report for ACT's Survey of Academic Advising. In addition to providing basic student demographics, Noble examines student responses in terms of both their perceived needs and the impressions they have of individuals who serve as their academic advisors. The final chapter on awareness and problem identification focuses on the topic of developmental advising. In this chapter Virginia Gordon shares with us theoretical frameworks, the application of theory to advising, and developmental strategies and techniques for advisors.

Chapters 5 through 8 deal directly with the stages of the generic change model which involve generating and selecting alternatives. The emphasis of these chapters is not on "the one best way" approach. Rather, the authors pinpoint key factors for consideration in generating and selecting alternatives related to each of the topics. In Chapter 5, I propose and examine seven organizational models for advising programs based on additional treatment of data from the ACT Third National Survey. The data indicate that there are some significant differences both between and among the organizational models when it comes to goal achievement, effectiveness, and five-year improvement. Yet, I avoid the temptation to suggest that one model is beyond a doubt, better than another.

In chapter 6, Peggy King compares and contrasts the most prominent advising delivery systems: faculty, professional, peer, and paraprofessional advisors. King provides a useful matrix for assessing both the strengths and weaknesses of each of the advisor types. She approaches this analysis with the contention that understanding the strengths and weaknesses is the first step in planning an advising program which both maximizes the strengths and minimizes the weaknesses of particular advisor types.

Comprehensive training for all who engage in academic advising is Mike Keller's focus in Chapter 7. Keller reviews the need for advisor training and provides a conceptual base for such training efforts. At the close of the chapter, he describes a training model which has been implemented at Aquinas College.

In the final chapter on generating and selecting alternatives, Dave Crockett tackles the thorny issue of evaluation and reward for academic advising programs. He deals with the subjects of program and advisor evaluation based on frequently cited sources in the area of faculty development.

Coincidental with the generic change model, Sara Looney addresses the problems of implementation in Chapter 9, "Concerning Changes in Advising." Looney presents a change model, discusses change at the campus level and presents three change agent roles which can be played by academic advisors.

The final two chapters of the monograph provide additional evidence and support for enhancing campus advising programs. Chapter 10 provides proof of the promise and future of academic advising. Abstracted in this chapter are more than seventy exemplary institutional academic advising programs. These abstracts represent the institutional ACT/NACADA collaboration which resulted in Award Winners from 1984-1987. And finally, chapter 11 contains an annotated bibliography of resources on the topic of academic advising. Because of the proliferation of advising research and writing since 1980, the bibliography focuses on resources which, in the mind of this editor, are the most useful tools in supporting the monograph.

It is the collective wish of the authors of this monograph that we have provided you with the tools necessary to foster lasting and qualitative change in the advising program at your institution. We have attempted to provide you with an awareness of the issues, the most recent thought about several critical advising functions, and strategies for approaching change. Unfortunately however, there is one thing that we will never be able to accomplish through sharing our collective wisdom. We cannot engender in you the energy, patience, and enthusiasm to undertake what may seem like an insurmountable task--improving your advising program. It is our hope that you will reject the "make do" approach to advising in favor of the "can do" approach and that, at least in some small way, we will have contributed to the enhancement of your academic advising program.

CHAPTER 2

The Third ACT National Survey of Academic Advising

Wesley R. Habley

David S. Crockett

The contribution of effective academic advising to student success is, by now, obvious to most administrators and faculty. These individuals recognize that students who formulate a sound educational/career plan based on their values, interests, and abilities will have an increased chance for academic success, satisfaction, and persistence. Academic advising remains the most significant mechanism available on most college and university campuses for aiding and abetting this important process. Substantive advising services are a prerequisite to the successful transition of students into the postsecondary system as well as to their persistence to completion. This report presents the results from the third national ACT survey on the status of academic advising in colleges and universities.

In 1979, with the encouragement and support of the National Academic Advising Association (NACADA), The American College Testing Program (ACT) conducted the first National Survey of Academic Advising. Carstensen and Silberhorn (1979) reported the following conclusions from that study:

- There are more similarities than differences in the approaches institutions take in the delivery of academic advising services. In general, institutions are traditional in their reliance on faculty to dispense information through the academic advising process.

- Generally, academic advising has been and still is perceived by administrators to be a low-status function.

- Those responsible for the delivery of academic advising services see advising as addressing the information needs of students rather than as an integral part of the students' total development which includes career and life planning. This is reflected not only in the manner in which the service is delivered, but also in the materials used and the training provided to those who serve as advisors.

- o There are few effective systems in place for the evaluation of academic advising and little reward or recognition attached to its successful delivery.

- o Generally, institutions have no comprehensive statement of policy regarding the delivery of academic advising. This may indicate a lack of a clear sense of institutional mission in delivering this service.

That first survey provided the higher education community with "baseline" data on academic advising in postsecondary institutions across the country.
Undergraduate academic advising practices were examined in a second National Survey of Academic Advising conducted by the ACT National Center for the Advancement of Educational Practices in 1983. The survey instrument focused on those elements identified in the research on academic advising as important characteristics in the organization and delivery of advising services. This survey provided the opportunity to compare findings with the results of the initial survey and to note changes in trends and practices.

The data in the 1983 National Survey on Academic Advising were based on a national sample of 1,095 two- and four-year public and private institutions of higher education. The institutions, chosen by a random sampling procedure that ensured responses would reflect national trends with a sampling error of less than 5 percent, were the same institutions included in the sample for the 1979 National Survey on Academic Advising.

Crockett and Levitz (1983) summarized the results of the second National Survey on Academic Advising as follows:

Advising Goals and Needs

- o With the exception of student development goals, institutions perceive that they are by-and-large successfully meeting the advising goals established by the National Academic Advising Association.

- o Respondents cite greater administrative support and recognition for advising and expanded training for advisors as their greatest needs.

Administration of Advising Services

- o On half of the campuses, advising policies and procedures are determined centrally for the entire institution.

- o The most common method of assigning students to advisors is to make assignments directly to academic units on the basis of intended major. Students without a declared major receive supplemental advising services.

- Advising centers are more frequently employed in the delivery of advising at public colleges than at private colleges. Since 1979, there has been about a 5 percent gain in the number of advising centers.

- There is a Director/Coordinator of Academic Advising at about one-fifth of the institutions. While this represents a slight increase since 1979, most persons holding this title are still not assigned these responsibilities on a full-time basis.

Delivery of Advising Services

- There appears to have been a significant increase in the proportion of institutions that have developed a comprehensive, written statement on the purposes and procedures of their advising programs. Today 63 percent of institutions have such a document, compared to only 26 percent in 1979. However, many of these statements still exclude the critical elements of selection, training, and reward of advisors.

- The degree of intrusiveness, as measured by requiring students to contact advisors at critical decision junctures, has not increased since 1979. At 43 percent of the institutions, students meet with their academic advisor 1-2 times during the first term of their freshman year; at another 43 percent of the institutions freshmen meet with their advisors 3-4 times during the first term.

- Less than half of the institutions indicate that they provide special advising services for selected groups of students that are distinguishable from services available to all students.

- As was true in 1979, faculty advising continues to be the predominant advising delivery mode at all types of institutions. Typically between 1 and 19 students are assigned to each faculty advisor. The majority of institutions have no formal recognition/reward system for those engaged in advising students. As was the case in 1979, three-fourths of the colleges do not consider advising effectiveness in making promotion/tenure decisions.

- Group advising, except during freshman orientation, appears to be an underutilized advising strategy.

- Peer advisors are used to supplement the regular advising program in nearly half of the institutions.

Training, Evaluation, and Advising Materials

- Many institutions are providing only a minimum of training to those involved in the advising process. This most often takes the form of an annual orientation meeting held at the beginning of the fall term. Only about a quarter of the institutions conduct regularly scheduled in-service workshops during the year.

- The vast majority of institutions have not implemented a systematic and periodic appraisal of either their advising programs or individual advisor performance.

- Advisors routinely have available college grade reports and admission test data for use in advising and are provided with material and resources necessary to the course selection and registration process. Six out of ten institutions have developed Advising Handbooks.

The results from these two national surveys have been cited frequently in the literature and used as a catalyst to improve support for academic advising on individual campuses. Because these survey data have come to be valued by many interested in improving academic advising, it was decided to conduct a third national survey. The purpose of this survey was to update information for members of the advising profession who rely on the ACT advising surveys as a source of information about current practices and trends in academic advising.

Methodology

The data in the 1987 National Survey of Academic Advising are based on a new sample of institutions drawn from a total population of 2,606 two- and four-year public and private institutions. (See Table 1 below for a description of sampling frame.)

Table 1

Type of Institution	n	%
two-year public	932	35.8
two-year private	138	5.3
four-year public	516	19.8
four-year private	1020	39.1
Total	2606	100.0%

A sample of 652 institutions was selected which would ensure, if a 60 percent response rate was achieved, that the respondents would be reflective of national trends with a sampling error of less than 5 percent. This report is based on responses from 447 institutions representing a return rate of 69 percent. This response rate compared favorably with the return rates of the two earlier surveys (1979 = 75 percent; 1983 = 69 percent). As shown in Table 2, the distribution of the responding institutions follows closely that of the sampling frame, thus one may assume that the sample is nationally representative of institutional types.

Table 2

Type of Institution	n	%
two-year public	155	34.7
two-year private	27	6.0
four-year public	91	20.4
four-year private	167	37.4
Total*	440	98.5%

*7 institutions, 1.5%, chose the "other" category for institutional type.

A further understanding of the respondents is provided in Table 3.

Table 3

Size of Undergraduate Enrollment

	2-Year Public	2-Year Private	4-Year Public	4-Year Private	Total
Under 1,000	14.2%	77.8%	6.6%	41.6%	26.9%
1,000-2,499	36.8	22.2	20.9	41.6	34.5
2,500-4,999	21.9	0.0	17.6	10.8	15.5
5,000-9,999	15.5	0.0	29.7	5.4	13.5
10,000-19,999	9.0	0.0	15.4	0.6	6.7
Over 20,000	2.6	0.0	9.9	0.0	2.9

The survey instrument was designed so that responses could be reported for advising programs conducted within academic units or departments or delivered through advising offices. The organizational structures or models of advising used in this survey are those developed by Habley (1983). Surveys were mailed to the Director/Coordinator of Academic Advising at each institution with a request that the survey be completed by the person most knowledgeable about the campus advising program. Table 4 provides the title of respondents by institutional type.

Table 4

Title of Respondent

	2-Year Public	2-Year Private	4-Year Public	4-Year Private	Total
Director/Coord of Advising	11.9%	7.4%	39.6%	17.4%	19.6%
Director of Counseling	31.1	0.0	5.5	3.6	13.1
VP/Dean of Academic Affairs	11.9	44.4	11.0	30.5	20.5
Asst. VP/Dean of Academic Affairs	1.3	7.4	18.7	15.0	10.6
VP/Dean of Student Affairs	11.9	3.7	3.3	5.4	7.0
Asst. VP/Dean of Student Affairs	3.3	0.0	2.2	1.2	2.0
College Dean or Department Chairperson	4.6	7.4	4.4	7.2	5.6
Other	23.8	29.6	15.4	19.8	21.4

Findings And Discussion

Coordination and Organization of Campus Advising System

In this section of the survey, respondents were asked to provide data on the coordination and reporting line of the individual charged with responsibility for the advising program, the existence and content of an institutional policy statement on academic advising, and the identification of an organizational model for the campus advising system.

Coordination and Reporting Lines

Table 5 depicts the title of the individual (if any) who has the responsibility for the coordination of academic advising on the campus.

Table 5

Coordinator of Academic Advising on Campus

	2-Year Public	2-Year Private	4-Year Public	4-Year Private	Total	1983 Total
Dir/Coord of Advising	10.4%	14.8%	39.6%	21.1%	20.9%	19.0%
Director of Counseling	33.8	3.7	5.5	3.0	14.2	11.0
VP/Dean of Academic Affairs	8.4	40.7	12.1	25.9	18.0	16.0
Asst. VP/Dean of Academic Affairs	3.9	3.7	14.3	12.7	9.4	6.0
VP/Dean of Student Affairs	11.7	0.0	3.3	4.2	6.3	6.0
Asst. VP/Dean of Student Affairs	4.5	0.0	1.1	1.8	2.5	2.0
College Dean or Dept. Chairperson	3.9	7.4	6.6	13.3	8.1	12.0
Other	16.9	22.2	8.8	13.3	14.4	20.0
No one has this responsibility	6.5	7.4	8.8	4.8	6.3	9.0
N =	154	27	91	166	445	

When comparing data for the total survey group in 1983 and 1987, two trends become obvious. First, there appears to be a swing toward campuswide coordination of the advising system. Coordination by a college dean or the department chairpersons is on the decrease as is the rather diverse category labeled "other." And, coordination at the Vice President, Assistant Vice President, and Director level has increased. In spite of the trend toward campuswide coordination, there was little change in the assignment of coordination responsibilities to an individual with the title Director or Coordinator of Academic Advising.

The second trend of note is that there is increasing recognition that the function of advising should be coordinated as indicated by a decrease in responses to the category "No one has this responsibility" from 9 percent in 1983 to 6.3 percent in 1987.

There is substantial difference in the title of the individual responsible for coordinating advising among the four institutional types. The most common title for the person responsible for coordination in each type is:

- Two-year public — Director of Counseling (33.8%)
- Two-year private — VP/Dean of Academic Affairs (40.7%)
- Four-year public — Director/Coord of Advising (39.6%)
- Four-year private — VP/Dean of Academic Affairs (25.9%)

As might be expected, the amount of time an individual spends in the coordination of the advising system is directly related to the breadth of his/her responsibilities. Table 6 reports the time spent on coordinating responsibilities. Note the higher percentage of full-time individuals (24.7 percent) from four-year public institutions where the title Director/Coordinator of Academic Advising is the most common title. In addition, private institutions where Vice President/Dean of Academic Affairs is the most common title, indicate the highest percentage of individuals devoting "less than one-quarter time" to the coordination function. A similar phenomenon exists at the two-year college where the Director of Counseling is the most common title.

Table 6

Time Spent on Responsibilities of Coordinating Advising

	2-Year Public	2-Year Private	4-Year Public	4-Year Private	Total
Less than one-quarter time	46.1%	65.2%	42.0%	47.5%	47.1%
One-quarter time	24.1	8.7	11.1	21.3	19.4
Half-time	12.1	21.7	16.0	15.0	14.3
Three-quarter time	6.4	0.0	6.2	6.3	5.8
Full-time	11.3	4.3	24.7	10.0	13.3
N =	141	23	81	160	412

The reporting lines of the individuals responsible for the coordination of campus advising are reported in Table 7. Although the data for institutional types is not reported here, it is obvious that more than 32 percent of all advising programs report through the academic affairs reporting line while slightly more than 17 percent report through the student affairs reporting line. It is also significant to note that 30.7 percent of the institutions indicate that the individual coordinating campus advising reports to the President of the institution.

Table 7

Individual Responsible for Coordinating Campus Advising System (By Positional Reporting Line)

	Dir Adv	Dir Cnsing	VP AA	AVP AA	VP SA	AVP SA	Dean	Other	Total
President	2.2%	4.8%	92.3%	19.0%	88.9%	27.3%	33.3%	4.7%	30.7%
VP - AA	32.3	17.5	3.8	61.9	7.4	9.1	33.3	34.4	25.9
AVP - AA	17.2	6.3	0.0	4.8	0.0	9.1	2.8	3.1	6.2
VP - SA	12.9	49.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	18.2	5.6	7.8	12.5
AVP - SA	8.6	9.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	27.3	0.0	4.7	4.8
Dean	9.7	4.8	0.0	11.9	0.0	0.0	19.4	25.0	9.8
Other	17.2	7.9	3.8	2.4	3.7	9.1	5.6	20.3	10.1
N =	93	63	78	42	27	11	36	64	417

Organizational Models

The definition of organizational models for academic advising was taken from the schema developed by Habley (1983) and also discussed in an article by Habley and McCauley (1987). Respondents were asked to consider the following statements and check the one statement which most closely described the overall organization of advising services on their campuses. A fuller description of the models can be obtained by reviewing the articles cited above.

> Faculty-Only Model--All students are assigned to an instructional faculty member for advising.
>
> Supplementary Model--All students are assigned to an instructional faculty member for advising. There is an advising office which provides general academic information and referral for students, but all advising transactions must be approved by the student's faculty advisor.
>
> Split Model--There is an advising office which advises a specific group of students (e.g., undecided, underprepared, nontraditional). All other students are assigned to instructional units and/or faculty for advising.
>
> Dual Model--Each student has two advisors. A member of the instructional faculty advises the student on matters related to the major. An advisor in an advising office advises students on general requirements, procedures, and policies.

Total Intake Model--Staff in an administrative unit are responsible for advising ALL students for a specified period of time and/or until specific requirements have been met. After meeting those requirements, students are assigned to a member of the instructional faculty for advising.

Satellite Model--Each school, college, or division within the institution has established a unit which is responsible for advising.

Self-Contained Model--Advising for all students from point of enrollment to point of departure is done by staff in a centralized advising unit.

The distribution on this item is presented in Table 8.

Table 8

Organizational Models by Institutional Type

Model	2-year Public	2-year Private	4-Year Public	4-Year Private	Total
Faculty-Only	25.8%	59.3%	31.9%	37.1%	33.1%
Supplementary	12.3	7.4	18.7	29.9	19.9
Split	23.2	3.7	36.3	15.6	22.1
Dual	3.9	7.4	1.1	6.0	4.3
Total Intake	3.9	7.4	5.5	4.8	4.7
Satellite	4.5	0.0	5.5	4.2	4.5
Self-Contained	26.5	14.8	1.1	2.4	11.4
N =	155	27	91	167	447

In reviewing Table 8, several conclusions can be drawn. First, the Faculty-Only Model has been, and continues to be, the primary organizational model for advising on all campuses. This survey indicates, however, that the Faculty-Only Model exists in only about one-third (33.1 percent) of the institutions surveyed. Although it may be easy to conclude that this model is on the decline, it should be noted that faculty are the sole source of formal advising responsibility in the Supplementary Model also. Fifty-three percent of our respondents indicate that faculty has sole responsibility for the delivery of advising services on their campuses. Although exact comparative data are not available, the 1983 survey reported that 53 percent of the institutions indicated that freshman advising was the responsibility of the faculty. In addition, it is safe to assume that with the exception of the Self-Contained Model, faculty has the primary responsibility for advising which takes place in each of the other models.

A second observation gleaned from Table 8 is that the four most common models (Faculty-Only, Split, Supplementary, and Self-Contained) account for 86.5 percent of the campuses surveyed. Each of the other three models (Total Intake, Dual, and Satellite) is found in less than one institution in twenty. Since the organizational models were not used in the 1983 survey, only future research on the models will provide an accurate picture of trends in their deployment.

The final conclusion on organizational models is that there is significant variability in the utilization of models when institutional type is considered. Table 9 depicts the top-ranked models for each of the institutional types.

Table 9

Most Prevalent Organizational Models by Institutional Type

Rank	2-Year Public	2-Year Private	4-Year Public	4-Year Private	All Institutions
1	Self-Contained (26.5%)	Faculty-Only (59.3%)	Split (36.3%)	Faculty-Only (37.1%)	Faculty-Only (33.1%)
2	Faculty-Only (25.8%)	Self Contained (14.8%)	Faculty-Only (31.9%)	Supplementary (29.9%)	Split (22.1%)
3	Split (23.2%)	Dual/Total Intake (7.4%)	Supplementary (18.7%)	Split (15.6%)	Supplementary (19.9%)

The two-year public colleges seem to display no clear preference for a model: the self-contained (26.5 percent), faculty-only (25.8 percent), and split (23.3 percent) models are utilized almost equally among the 155 two-year public colleges participating in this survey.

As could be anticipated, four-year private institutions rely most heavily on the two models which utilize faculty advisors solely (faculty-only and supplementary). Finally, the greatest diversity in choice of organizational models appears in the two-year institutions where either the totally centralized (self-contained) or the totally decentralized (faculty-only) are the two most popular models.

Institutional Policy Statement on Academic Advising

One of the most important aspects of a quality academic advising program is the existence of a policy statement. Table 10 reports the existence of a policy statement from both the 1983 and 1987 surveys.

Table 10

Percentage of Institutions with Advising Policy Statement

	2-Year Public		2-Year Private		4-Year Public		4-Year Private		Total	
	83	87	83	87	83	87	83	87	83	87
Yes	63%	51.6%	57%	53.8%	62%	53.4%	66%	56.8%	63%	53.9%
No	36	48.4	43	46.2	36	46.6	31	43.2	35	46.1

Significant disparity is apparent between the 1983 and 1987 surveys in respondents' reports on the existence of an advising policy statement. There was a decrease of 9.1 percent in the number of institutions reporting the existence of such a statement from 1983 to 1987. The greatest change is found among two-year institutions where 11.4 percent fewer institutions reported having a policy statement on advising.

To assess the comprehensiveness of existing policy statements, respondents were asked to indicate whether specific elements were covered in their statements. Table 11 reports the inclusion of these topics for those institutions which reported that a policy statement existed.

Table 11

Elements Detailed in Statement on Academic Advising[1]

	2-Year Public		2-Year Private		4-Year Public		4-Year Private		All Institutions	
	83	87	83	87	83	87	83	87	83	87
Philosophy	73%	75.9%	76%	83.3%	68%	71.7%	73%	76.1%	72%	75.9%
Goals	82	77.2	81	83.3	80	71.7	81	78.5	81	77.3
Delivery Strategies	54	54.4	56	33.3	59	37.0	53	57.6	55	51.7
Advisor Responsibilities	72	75.9	100	75.0	71	80.4	83	91.4	78	82.4
Advisor Selection	28	38.0	38	33.3	29	26.1	31	27.2	30	31.0
Advisee Responsibilities	N/A*	46.8	N/A	33.3	N/A	60.9	N/A	47.3	N/A	49.4
Advisor Training	22	29.1	18	25.0	28	21.7	21	25.8	23	25.8
Advisor Evaluation	N/A	20.3	N/A	33.3	N/A	15.2	N/A	12.0	N/A	16.8
Recognition/Reward	9	8.9	6	8.3	11	10.9	7	10.9	8	9.9

[1] Multiple responses possible; percentages will not total 100%.
*Data not available. Item was not included in 1983 survey.

An analysis of the data presented in Table 11 leads to the conclusion that there are no discernible changes in advising policy content either for all institutions or among institutional types. Nearly half (49.4 percent) of the 1987 respondents report that advisee responsibilities are included in their policy statements, a topic which was not included as an item in the 1983 survey.

In addition, philosophy of advising, goals of advising, and advisor responsibilities were the only items included in the policy statements of 75 percent or more of the institutions reporting in both the 1983 and the 1987 surveys.

The changes which do exist within institutional type from 1983 to 1987 may be more a function of the small number of institutions reporting, particularly for the private two-year college where only 12 institutions had policy statements which were presented in Table 11.

On a final note, the reader should be reminded that Table 11 represents only those institutions which have a policy statement on academic advising (53.9 percent of the institutions surveyed). A more in-depth analysis of the data reported in both Tables 10 and 11 leads to conclusions such as 40.9 percent (.539 x .759) of all institutions in our sample have an advising policy statement which includes the institution's philosophy of advising. Similar comparisons can be undertaken for institutional types by multiplying the percentage of the institutional type with a policy statement by the percentage of that institutional type including a particular item in that existing statement.

Evaluation of Program Effectiveness

Table 12 reports both the 1983 and 1987 responses to the question "Does your institution regularly evaluate the overall effectiveness of your advising program?"

Table 12

Regular Evaluation of Program Effectiveness

	2-Year Public		2-Year Private		4-Year Public		4-Year Private		All Institutions	
	83	87	83	87	83	87	83	87	83	87
Yes	22%	44.7%	7%	63.0%	17%	31.1%	23%	45.1%	21%	42.5%
No	75	55.3	89	37.0	80	68.9	74	54.9	76	57.5
Blank	4	N/A	4	N/A	3	N/A	3	N/A	3	N/A

Table 12 indicates that there is a pronounced trend toward the evaluation of advising program effectiveness both within institutional types and across all institutions. Although only 42.5 percent of institutions report the systematic evaluation of advising program effectiveness, the figure is more than double the percentage reported in the 1983 survey (21.0 percent).

Academic Departments

This section of the National Survey was intended to provide a description of the academic advising practices which exist in academic units or departments within the institution. Throughout this section the term "faculty advising" is used interchangeably with the terms "academic department" and "academic unit" because the preponderance of the advising in academic units is the responsibility of the teaching faculty. It should be noted, however, that a small but significant

portion of the advising is conducted by non-instructional personnel, paraprofessional advisors, and peer advisors.

Institutions responding to this section represent all the organizational models described in the previous section of this chapter with the exception of those respondents who identified with the self-contained model for the delivery of advising services.

In an attempt to capture the diversity of practices in academic departments, the researchers asked the respondents to check the extent to which selected characteristics applied to the academic departments on their campuses. Respondents were asked to check one of the five categories listed below:

ALL --- If the characteristic applied to all academic departments on the campus.

MOST --- If the characteristic applied to at least two-thirds, but not all of the departments on the campus.

SOME --- If the characteristic applied to more than one-third but less than two-thirds of the departments on the campus.

FEW --- If the characteristic applied to one-third or less of the departments on the campus.

NO --- If the characteristic applied to none of the departments on the campus.

For the purpose of reporting the data, the categories MOST, SOME, and FEW were collapsed into a single category labeled SOME on the tables which follow.

No comparable data exists from the 1983 Survey of Academic Advising because that survey provided no systematic methodology for separating faculty advising from other advising which took place on the campuses surveyed. A goal of this research is to provide baseline data for a future study measuring changes in advising practices within academic departments.

Delivery of Advising Services in Academic Departments

These items of the survey deal with the identification of individuals who serve as academic advisors, the prevalent roles of those advisors, and the utilization of group advising formats to deliver services to students. Table 13 reports the extent of involvement of advisor types within the academic units.

The primary delivery of advising services in the academic departments is through instructional faculty with 49.9 percent of the institutions reporting the utilization

of instructional faculty in all departments. In addition, 50.1 percent of the institutions reported that department chairpersons advise in all of their departments. The use of paraprofessional and peer advisors was extremely low with 86.4 percent and 82.8 percent, respectively, of the institutions reporting no utilization of those advisor types in academic departments. Non-instructional personnel are utilized in all departments on the campuses of only 6.8 percent of the institutions surveyed.

When institutional type is considered, the following tendencies are noted:

1. The use of both department heads and instructional faculty is higher in private institutions than in public institutions.

2. The use of peer and paraprofessional advisors in academic departments is a practice associated almost exclusively with four-year institutions--particularly public institutions. Even so, they are used in only some departments at these institutions.

3. Public institutions appear more likely to utilize non-instructional personnel to deliver advising services in academic departments.

Data reported in Table 14 describe the methods by which faculty become involved in the advising process. Respondents were asked to rate the extent to which faculty volunteered, were required, or met selection criteria to become advisors.

One of the current themes in advising literature is the utilization of only faculty who volunteer for advising services within the department. The data for all institutions, however, indicate that faculty are required to advise in ALL (48.4 percent) or SOME (36.6 percent) of the departments. Voluntary participation in the departmental advising programs does not exist at all for 60.2 percent of the total group, and the use of selection criteria for participation of faculty does not exist at all for 67.9 percent of the campuses reported in this survey.

Comparisons of institutional types lead to the following observations.

1. Voluntary participation is most likely to occur in four-year public institutions, although the mode for those institutions and their private counterparts is to require faculty to advise.

2. Selection criteria are most likely to be applied in four-year private institutions, although selection criteria are applied in all departments at only 12.3 percent of these four-year private institutions.

3. Faculty are most likely to be required to advise in two-year institutions; 58.5 percent of two-year public and 75.0 percent of two-year private institutions require faculty to advise in all departments on campus.

Table 13

Advisor Types in Academic Departments

Advising Personnel	Two-Year Public			Two-Year Private			Four-Year Public			Four-Year Private			Total		
	All	Some	No	All	Some	No	All	Some	No	All	Some	No	All	Some	No
Department Heads	45.9	36.7	17.4	65.0	15.0	20.0	31.1	57.8	11.1	62.7	29.1	8.2	50.1	38.0	12.0
Non-Instructional Personnel	13.8	41.2	45.0	5.0	35.0	60.0	2.2	61.1	36.7	3.8	35.4	60.8	6.8	42.8	50.4
Instructional Faculty	48.6	45.0	6.4	70.0	25.0	5.0	40.0	55.6	4.4	55.1	39.2	5.7	49.9	44.6	5.5
Paraprofessionals	2.8	6.4	90.8	0.0	0.0	100.0	0.0	35.6	64.4	0.0	5.3	94.9	0.8	12.8	86.4
Peers	0.9	4.6	94.5	0.0	5.0	95.0	0.0	35.6	64.4	3.8	12.0	84.2	1.8	15.4	82.8

Table 14

Selection of Faculty Advisors

Method	Two-Year Public			Two-Year Private			Four-Year Public			Four-Year Private			Total		
	All	Some	No	All	Some	No	All	Some	No	All	Some	No	All	Some	No
They volunteer	10.4	20.7	68.9	0.0	15.0	85.0	2.3	51.1	46.6	9.7	29.9	60.4	7.8	32.0	60.2
They meet certain selection criteria	4.7	12.3	83.0	5.0	5.0	90.0	2.3	32.9	64.8	12.3	31.2	56.5	7.2	24.9	67.9
They are required to advise	58.5	21.7	19.8	75.0	25.0	0.0	46.8	35.0	18.2	46.8	35.0	18.2	48.4	36.6	15.0

A final question in the delivery of advising services within academic departments is the extent to which group advising formats were utilized to deliver services. Table 15 reports on the use of such formats.

Small group meetings during orientation or registration are the most used of the group advising formats investigated. Nearly one-third (32.7 percent) of the institutions responded that all departments employed small group meetings, and 60.1 percent reported that some departments utilized that strategy. Credit or non-credit courses and workshops or seminars were far less popular as group strategies, with 60.1 percent and 58.6 percent respectively reporting that no departments utilized those strategies.

When institutional type was considered, the following trends were observed.

1. Public institutions were most likely to employ at least one of the group advising formats in at least some of their departments.

2. Two-year public institutions were most likely to provide credit-bearing or non-credit courses as a group advising strategy, with 18.5 percent reporting such activity in all departments and 32.6 percent reporting courses in some of their departments.

Advisor Load and Student Contact

For a faculty advising program to be effective, several factors related to advisor/advisee contact need to be taken into account. First, the faculty advisor must have a reasonable number of students to advise. Second, the faculty member must devote time to the function of academic advising, allowing for more than perfunctory schedule approval once each term. Finally, policies and procedures should maximize the potential for interaction between the advisee and the faculty advisor.

Table 16 reports on the typical advisor load in academic departments.

The data presented in Table 16 for all institutions indicates that although loads are highly variable, faculty advisor loads of more than 40 advisees are rather uncommon. Further scrutiny of the original data which is not broken down in Table 15 shows that only 4.9 percent of the institutions report loads of more than 40 per advisor in most (two-thirds or more) of their departments. Only 2.5 percent of the institutions indicate loads in excess of 40 students in all of their departments.

Table 15

Group Advising Formats Utilized

Formats	Two-Year Public			Two-Year Private			Four-Year Public			Four-Year Private			Total		
	All	Some	No	All	Some	No	All	Some	No	All	Some	No	All	Some	No
Credit or Non-Credit Courses	18.5	32.6	48.9	6.7	26.6	66.7	6.1	32.9	61.0	10.2	21.3	68.5	11.8	28.1	60.1
Workshops or Seminars	7.6	36.2	56.2	13.3	33.4	53.3	4.9	42.7	52.4	9.4	25.3	65.4	8.1	33.1	58.6
Small Group Meetings During Orientation or Registration	25.0	66.3	8.7	33.3	46.7	20.0	23.2	73.1	3.7	43.3	49.6	7.1	32.7	60.1	7.2

Variations in advisor load do appear among institutional types. The more substantial variations are:

1. Private institutions are more likely to exhibit loads of less than 20 students per faculty advisor than public institutions.

2. Public institutions are more likely to exhibit loads in excess of 40 students per advisor with 2.3 percent of four-year public institutions indicating this practice in all of their departments and 68.2 percent of those institutions indicating that at least some of their departments had loads in excess of 40. Similar distributions for two-year public institutions are 3.0 percent and 53.6 percent respectively. Although private institutions report comparable percentages of loads in excess of 40 advisees in all departments, the percentages of private institutions reporting loads in excess of 40 in at least some of their departments are substantially lower than the percentages reported for public institutions.

The amount of time faculty spend in the advising function is reported in Table 17.

Clearly, neither extreme (not more than about 1 percent or more than 15 percent) exists to any great degree at the campuses responding to this survey. But, by locating the highest percentage response to the "all departments" designation and the lowest percentage response to the "no departments" designation, it is possible to conclude that the mode for time spent in faculty advising across all institutions is between 1 percent and 5 percent. In addition, only a negligible percentage (3.0 percent) report that more than 15 percent of faculty time is spent on advising in all departments on campus.

When institutional type is considered, the following tendencies for faculty time spent in advising are noted.

1. Although one might assume that higher loads would have a direct bearing on the amount of time faculty spend in advising, the inverse may be true. While lower loads seem more the norm in private institutions (See Table 16), the norm for time spent in advising appears to be higher in private institutions.

2. The large percentages which exist in the "some" category are indicative of major variations in time spent in advising both between and among institutional types.

Measuring the degree of intrusiveness of advising in the academic department was the focus of Table 18. For this item, respondents were asked to assess the level of required advisor/advisee contact for eight common advising transactions.

For all institutions, advising in departments appeared to be only moderately intrusive. In at least 50 percent of institutions, contact is required by all

Table 16

Advisor Load

Load	Two-Year Public			Two-Year Private			Four-Year Public			Four-Year Private			Total		
	All	Some	No	All	Some	No	All	Some	No	All	Some	No	All	Some	No
Less than 20	3.0	68.2	28.3	20.0	70.0	10.0	8.0	73.8	18.2	16.3	73.2	10.5	10.7	71.8	17.5
20 - 40	7.1	74.7	18.2	10.0	55.0	35.0	4.5	83.0	12.5	2.6	71.3	26.1	4.6	74.4	21.0
More than 40	3.0	53.6	43.4	0.0	30.0	70.0	2.3	68.2	29.5	2.6	45.1	52.3	2.5	52.4	45.1

Table 17

Time Spent in Faculty Advising

Time Advising	Two-Year Public			Two-Year Private			Four-Year Public			Four-Year Private			Total		
	All	Some	No	All	Some	No	All	Some	No	All	Some	No	All	Some	No
Not More Than About 1%	1.9	36.2	61.9	5.3	15.8	78.9	2.3	46.5	51.2	3.4	26.8	69.8	3.0	33.7	63.3
Between 1% and 5%	24.8	54.2	21.0	36.8	36.9	26.3	9.3	65.7	25.0	10.7	53.7	35.6	15.9	55.9	28.2
5% to 15%	3.8	46.7	49.5	21.1	21.0	57.9	4.7	60.4	34.9	14.8	60.4	24.8	9.3	54.3	36.4
More than 15%	3.8	29.5	66.7	0.0	10.5	89.5	1.2	41.8	57.0	4.0	34.9	61.1	3.0	34.0	63.0

Table 18

Required Contact with Advisor

Required Contact	Two-Year Public			Two-Year Private			Four-Year Public			Four-Year Private			Total		
	All	Some	No	All	Some	No	All	Some	No	All	Some	No	All	Some	No
Class Scheduling/ Registration	58.4	38.6	3.0	84.2	15.8	0.0	60.7	31.4	7.9	89.2	8.9	1.9	73.4	22.6	4.0
Adding a Class	38.6	37.6	23.8	68.4	26.3	5.3	40.4	37.1	22.5	76.4	19.3	4.3	57.0	26.3	16.7
Dropping/Withdrawing from a class	36.6	56.1	7.3	68.4	26.3	5.3	41.6	33.7	24.7	77.7	14.7	7.6	56.7	26.1	17.2
Declaring a Major	19.8	24.8	55.4	36.8	21.1	42.1	46.1	32.6	21.3	63.1	16.5	20.4	45.2	23.1	31.7
Changing a Major	29.7	27.7	42.6	47.4	15.8	36.8	48.3	27.0	24.7	61.8	18.5	19.7	48.4	23.4	28.2
Following Report of Unsatisfactory Progress	16.8	37.6	45.6	31.6	42.1	26.3	18.0	38.2	43.8	30.6	42.0	27.4	23.7	40.0	36.3
Approval of Graduation Plans	33.7	26.7	39.6	42.1	26.3	31.6	61.8	19.1	19.1	59.9	14.0	26.1	51.9	19.3	28.8
Withdrawing from School	27.7	46.9	25.4	52.6	5.3	42.1	20.2	23.6	56.2	35.7	21.0	43.3	30.4	23.1	46.5

academic departments for only four of the eight transactions listed. Class scheduling/registration contact is required by all departments in 73.4 percent of the institutions, while in slightly more than half of the institutions, all departments require contact when adding a class (57 percent), dropping or withdrawing from a class (56.7 percent), and approval of graduation plans (51.9 percent).

Conversely, contact is required in no department when a student withdraws from the institution (46.5 percent), receives an unsatisfactory progress report (36.3 percent), or declares (31.7 percent) or changes (28.2 percent) a major. On the basis of these data, it appears that advising in academic departments is viewed more as a clerical registration function than as a process in which the advisor intervenes at critical times such as when a student is experiencing academic difficulty, withdraws from the institution, or declares a change of major.

What may be true for all institutions, however, appears not to be true when institutional type is considered. Among the institutional types, tendencies exhibited in the data are:

1. Four-year private institutions appear to be more intrusive than the other institutional types. Contact is required by all departments in more than half of the institutions for six of the eight transactions listed.

2. Two-year private institutions are somewhat intrusive. Contact is required by all departments in more than half of the institutions for four of the eight transactions listed.

3. Four-year public institutions show little evidence of intrusiveness. Contact is required by all departments in more than half of the institutions for only two of the eight transactions listed.

4. Two-year public institutions are the least intrusive of the institutional types. Contact is required by all departments in more than half of the institutions on only one of eight transactions, and that is class scheduling, registration, and, these institutions have the highest rate of reporting that no departments require contact for five of the eight occasions listed.

A final factor on the topic of advisor load and contact with faculty advisors was the number of times advisors and advisees had contact during an academic term. Respondents were asked to check the response which best represented the number of contacts within academic departments. The results of this inquiry are presented in Table 19.

On the basis of the data for all institutions, most faculty advisors have contact with their advisees two times or fewer per academic term. A total of 34 percent of the institutions reported 2 or fewer contacts in all of their departments while a

total of only 8.6 percent of all institutions reported 3 or more contacts per term in all departments.

Observable trends in student contact by institutional type are:

1. Advisor contact in four-year private institutions is more variable. For both the "0-1" contact category and the "6 or more" category private institutions reported the highest percentages for all departments when compared to the other institutional types, 25.5 percent and 3.3 percent respectively.

2. Four-year private institutions seem to have the highest frequency of contact during an academic term.

3. Four-year institutions seem to have a higher frequency of contact during an academic term than two-year institutions.

Training of Faculty Advisors

A set of items on the survey dealt with the existence of training programs, the formats utilized, and topics covered in training advisors in academic departments. Table 20 reports the existence of mandatory training programs in academic departments.

It is clear from this table that mandatory training for departmental advisors is far from the norm. Nearly half (44.6 percent) of all institutions reported that there was no mandatory training in any of the academic departments, while only 26.2 percent of institutions reported that training was mandatory in all of their academic departments. At 29.2 percent of the institutions, mandatory training was not systematically undertaken.

The following trends can also be observed:

1. Private institutions mandate training to a higher degree than public institutions. Private institutions reported both a higher percentage for all departments having mandatory training and a lower percentage for no departments having mandatory training.

2. Mandatory training appears to be the most inconsistent across departments at four-year public institutions. Only 8.8 percent of those institutions reported the existence of mandatory training in all departments on campus and 48.8 percent reported that mandatory training existed in none of the departments.

3. With the exception of four-year public institutions, however, over one-quarter of the institutions of each type report that mandatory training is required in all departments.

Table 19

Contacts Per Term

Time Advising	Two-Year Public			Two-Year Private			Four-Year Public			Four-Year Private			Total		
	All	Some	No	All	Some	No	All	Some	No	All	Some	No	All	Some	No
0 - 1	15.9	49.5	34.6	10.0	20.0	70.0	22.2	52.2	25.6	25.5	21.6	52.9	20.7	37.5	41.8
2	10.3	64.5	25.2	5.0	45.0	50.0	8.9	75.5	15.6	19.6	53.6	26.8	13.3	62.2	24.5
3 - 5	2.8	55.1	42.1	25.0	55.0	20.0	1.1	55.6	43.3	8.5	65.4	26.1	5.9	59.0	35.1
6 or more	1.9	32.7	65.4	0.0	25.0	75.0	2.2	27.8	70.0	3.3	37.2	59.5	2.7	32.7	64.6

Table 20

Mandatory Training Programs

Training Mandatory	Two-Year Public			Two-Year Private			Four-Year Public			Four-Year Private			Total		
	All	Some	No	All	Some	No	All	Some	No	All	Some	No	All	Some	No
Yes	29.9	21.8	48.3	43.8	12.5	43.8	8.8	42.4	48.8	32.1	28.5	39.4	26.2	29.2	44.6
No	44.8	10.4	44.8	31.3	12.4	56.3	46.3	24.9	28.8	40.9	13.8	45.3	43.1	15.7	41.2

Formats for training departmental academic advisors are presented in Table 21.

Where training programs exist the most common format for training departmental advisors in all institutions is the "workshop of one day or less." About 30 percent of the institutions reported that all departments employed that format. Slightly over 11 percent of the campuses reported that a series of short workshops throughout the year were utilized in all departments, and the same percentage of institutions (11.3 percent) reported that the format for training varied with the needs of the advisor in all of the departments on the campus.

When considered by institutional type, the following tendencies exist.

1. Four-year private institutions seem to be most likely to provide workshops of one day or less, a series of workshops throughout the year, a varied approach by advisor need, and other formats for advisor training.

2. Four-year institutions appear to employ more variety in training formats available at their institutions than two-year institutions.

The final aspect of training which was explored for faculty advisors in the national survey was that of the topics included in the training program. The topics were organized to include three content areas: conceptual skills, informational skills, and relational skills. Conceptual skills are defined as the ideas which advisors must understand. For the purpose of this survey, these included the "importance of advising" and "definition of academic advising." These skills are designated by a (C) in Table 22. Informational skills are defined as the things an advisor must know, and, for the purposes of this survey, included the items: academic regulations, policies and registration procedures, campus referral sources, career and employment information, and use of information sources. Informational skills are designated by an (I) in Table 22. Relational skills are defined as those behaviors an advisor must exhibit in the advising interaction and include counseling skills, interview skills, and decision-making skills. Those skills are identified by an (R) in Table 22. As one might anticipate, training programs for faculty advisors are heavily oriented toward the informational aspects of the role. Regulations, policies, and procedures are included in training for all departments at 66.1 percent of the institutions surveyed. Although career/employment information is the least likely of the information skills to be included in training programs in all departments (18.2 percent), campus referral sources and the use of information sources are included in all departments' training programs at 50.8 percent and 38.4 percent of the institutions, respectively.

Institutions also placed emphasis on training faculty advisors in conceptual skills with the "importance of advising" and the "definition of advising" included in the training programs of all departments for 52.8 percent and 38.1 percent of the institutions, respectively.

Table 21

Format for Faculty Advisor Training

Training Format	Two-Year Public			Two-Year Private			Four-Year Public			Four-Year Private			Total		
	All	Some	No	All	Some	No	All	Some	No	All	Some	No	All	Some	No
Workshop One Day or Less	28.9	30.1	41.0	55.6	22.2	22.2	18.1	47.2	34.7	34.4	32.8	32.8	30.1	35.5	34.4
Workshop More Than One Day	3.6	6.0	90.4	0.0	11.1	88.9	2.8	11.1	86.1	1.6	10.4	88.0	2.3	9.3	88.4
Series	7.2	30.1	62.7	11.1	11.1	77.8	6.9	30.6	62.5	16.8	20.0	63.2	11.3	24.8	63.9
Method Varies by Advisor	8.4	24.4	67.2	11.1	11.1	77.8	12.5	31.9	55.6	12.8	18.4	68.8	11.3	22.8	65.9
Other	3.6	4.8	91.6	0.0	0.0	100.0	2.8	4.2	93.1	5.6	1.6	92.8	4.0	3.0	93.0

Table 22

Topics Included in Faculty Advisor Training

Training Topics	Two-Year Public			Two-Year Private			Four-Year Public			Four-Year Private			Total		
	All	Some	No	All	Some	No	All	Some	No	All	Some	No	All	Some	No
Importance of Advising (C)	49.4	37.0	13.6	55.6	27.7	16.7	36.5	44.6	18.9	64.6	21.6	13.8	52.8	31.9	15.3
Definition of Advising (C)	39.5	24.7	35.8	44.4	22.3	33.3	21.6	33.8	44.6	46.2	22.3	31.5	38.1	26.1	35.8
Regulations, Policies, Registration Procedures (I)	60.5	37.0	2.5	100.0	0.0	0.0	48.6	48.7	2.7	75.4	21.5	3.1	66.1	31.3	26
Campus Referral Sources (I)	46.9	43.2	9.9	72.2	11.1	16.7	39.2	56.7	4.1	56.9	27.7	15.4	50.8	38.1	11.1
Career/Employment Information (I)	17.3	50.6	32.1	16.7	38.9	44.4	12.2	50.0	37.8	22.3	38.5	39.2	18.2	44.7	37.1
Use of Information Sources (I)	37.0	39.5	23.5	61.1	11.1	27.8	28.4	50.0	21.6	43.1	31.5	25.4	38.4	37.2	24.4
Counseling Skills (R)	18.5	46.9	34.6	16.7	38.9	44.4	10.8	39.2	50.0	27.7	36.1	36.2	20.5	39.8	39.7
Interview Skills (R)	17.3	39.5	43.2	0.0	33.3	66.7	6.8	31.0	62.2	19.2	36.2	44.6	14.7	35.5	49.8
Decision-Making Skills (R)	13.6	40.7	45.7	11.1	33.3	55.6	4.1	32.4	63.5	14.6	30.0	55.4	11.4	33.9	54.7

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It is important to note that the least emphasis is placed on training faculty advisors in relational skills. Counseling, interviewing, and decision-making skills are included in the training programs of all departments in only 20 percent or less of the institutions surveyed.

There are discernible variations in the topics included when institutional type is considered. The most obvious of those variations are these:

1. Department advisor training programs appear to be the most comprehensive in four-year private institutions. The topics "regulations, policies, and registration procedures," "campus referral sources," and "the importance of advising" were included by all departments in more than 50 percent of the four-year private institutions reporting.

2. Four-year public institutions appear to have the least comprehensive training programs for faculty advisors. None of the training topics was included by all departments at more than 50 percent of those institutions.

3. For two-year public institutions, "regulations, policies, and registration procedures" was the only topic included by all departments in 50 percent or more of the institutions surveyed.

Evaluation of Departmental Advisors

The evaluation of individual faculty advisor performance was the topic explored in Table 23. Respondents were asked to report on the extent to which four evaluation techniques were used for faculty advisors.

Although no method of evaluating faculty advisors could be called widely used, the two most common methods for all institutions were supervisory performance review and student evaluation. In neither case, however, did the institutions reporting utilization in all departments on campus exceed 25 percent of the total group. Peer review, a method common in faculty evaluation, was the least utilized of the evaluation methods.

There were no major and discernible distinctions among the institutional types. With the exception of performance review by supervisor in the two-year private college, where a low N count of institutions in the category makes the data less convincing, no other characteristic for any institutional type was employed by all departments in more than 25 percent of the institutions surveyed.

Table 23

Methods for Evaluating Advisors

Method	Two-Year Public			Two-Year Private			Four-Year Public			Four-Year Private			Total		
	All	Some	No	All	Some	No	All	Some	No	All	Some	No	All	Some	No
Student Evaluation	21.2	33.3	45.5	57.1	14.3	28.6	10.3	52.9	36.8	29.0	29.9	41.1	23.2	36.6	40.2
Self-Evaluation	16.7	30.3	53.0	14.3	35.7	50.0	14.7	38.2	47.1	14.0	31.8	54.2	14.7	33.9	51.4
Supervisory Performance Review	22.7	44.0	33.3	42.9	0.0	57.1	23.5	53.0	23.5	25.2	37.4	37.4	22.0	44.8	33.2
Peer Review	4.5	9.1	86.4	7.1	14.3	78.6	1.5	32.3	66.2	4.7	18.7	76.6	3.9	20.4	75.7

Recognition and Reward for Faculty Advising

The degree to which faculty advising is either recognized or rewarded is the subject of the data presented in Table 24.

The data presented in Table 24 clearly underscore the commonly held opinion that there is little recognition or reward associated with the role of the faculty advisor. Nearly 45 percent of all institutions provide no recognition or reward in any of their academic departments for those who function as faculty advisors. Of those institutions that do provide some mechanism for recognition or reward, the most prevalent recognition is as "a minor consideration in the promotion and tenure process." Yet, only 14.6 percent of the institutions surveyed employed that method in all departments on the campus.

In comparing institutional types, the following observations can be made:

1. No institutional type appears to place a major priority on recognition or reward for faculty advising.

2. Two-year institutions show a more uniform absence of these reward methods than is the case with four-year institutions.

Advisor Information Sources

Because access to reference tools and information about advisees is critical to the advising process, respondents were asked to assess the extent to which faculty advisors were provided with those information sources. Table 25 reports on responses to the inquiry of which reference materials were routinely provided to faculty advisors.

Only 2.4 percent of all institutions provide no reference tools for individuals who serve as faculty advisors. The most commonly available materials include computerized academic progress reports, academic planning worksheets, directory of campus referral sources, and an academic advising handbook. Yet, it is interesting to note the lower percentages of institutions which report that aggregate data on the student population, employment outlook projections, articulation worksheets, and forms for keeping anecdotal records are provided to faculty advisors in all of their departments.

When analyzed by institutional type, the following themes appear.

1. Private institutions appear to provide faculty advisors with more comprehensive reference materials than public institutions.

Table 24

Recognition/Reward for Faculty Advising

Recognition/Award	Two-Year Public			Two-Year Private			Four-Year Public			Four-Year Private			Total		
	All	Some	No	All	Some	No	All	Some	No	All	Some	No	All	Some	No
Released Time From Instruction	4.3	9.5	86.2	15.0	5.0	80.0	4.6	29.9	65.5	4.9	12.7	82.4	5.2	15.7	79.1
Released Time From Committee Work	1.1	7.4	91.5	10.0	5.0	85.0	4.6	21.8	73.6	2.8	10.6	86.6	2.0	13.5	84.5
Released Time From Research Expectation	1.1	0.0	98.9	10.0	0.0	90.0	3.4	11.5	85.1	1.4	4.2	94.4	1.4	5.8	92.8
Salary Increments for Time Spent in Advising	2.1	6.3	91.5	5.0	10.0	85.0	0.0	10.3	89.7	3.5	15.5	81.0	2.3	11.5	86.2
Major Consideration in Promotion and Tenure	2.1	8.5	89.4	15.0	5.0	80.0	4.6	20.7	74.7	8.5	16.1	75.4	6.0	14.9	79.1
Minor Consideration in Promotion and Tenure	6.4	14.9	78.7	15.0	0.0	85.0	8.0	51.8	40.2	24.6	31.7	43.7	14.6	31.0	54.4
Awards for Excellence in Advising	1.1	7.4	91.5	5.0	5.0	90.0	2.3	12.6	85.1	1.4	7.1	91.5	1.7	8.6	89.7
No Reward	59.6	13.8	26.6	55.0	20.0	35.0	32.2	24.1	43.7	39.4	17.6	43.0	44.4	17.5	38.1

Table 25

Reference Materials Provided For Faculty Advisors

Reference Material	Two-Year Public			Two-Year Private			Four-Year Public			Four-Year Private			Total		
	All	Some	No	All	Some	No	All	Some	No	All	Some	No	All	Some	No
Data on Student Application	23.3	33.0	43.7	21.1	15.7	63.2	15.7	38.2	46.1	30.7	21.6	47.7	24.4	28.7	46.9
Advising Handbook	52.4	10.7	36.9	52.6	0.0	47.4	43.8	30.4	25.8	48.2	14.5	37.3	48.2	16.8	35.0
Employment Outlook Projections	6.8	40.8	52.4	5.3	26.3	68.4	3.4	40.4	56.2	7.8	30.8	61.4	6.2	36.1	57.7
Computerized Student Academic Progress Reports	43.7	27.2	29.1	63.2	5.2	31.6	39.3	32.6	28.1	62.7	15.1	22.2	51.5	22.5	26.0
Academic Planning Worksheets	58.3	26.2	15.5	73.7	10.5	15.8	46.1	40.4	13.5	64.7	19.0	16.3	58.3	26.0	15.7
Forms for Anecdotal Records or Contracts	17.5	18.4	64.1	36.8	10.6	52.6	15.7	39.4	44.9	21.6	24.8	53.6	20.1	26.0	53.9
Articulation Worksheets	39.8	30.1	30.1	26.3	21.1	52.6	15.7	38.2	46.1	14.4	17.0	68.6	22.5	26.3	51.2
Director of Campus Referral Sources	47.6	15.5	36.9	52.6	5.3	42.1	48.3	24.7	27.0	51.0	11.1	37.9	49.3	15.7	35.0
No Reference Materials Provided	1.0	3.7	95.1	10.5	5.3	84.2	2.2	4.5	93.3	2.0	5.2	92.8	2.4	4.6	93.0

2. Four-year public institutions provide faculty advisors with the least comprehensive reference materials. None of the materials listed are provided to all faculty advisors in even half of the four-year public institutions represented in this survey.

Information about individual advisees is the second critical element in the advising information system supporting faculty advising. Table 26 presents findings on common sources of student data which are utilized in the faculty advising process.

For all institutions, the college transcript/grade reports, ACT/SAT testing data, and locally administered placement test results are most commonly provided for faculty advisors. To a lesser extent, faculty advisors have access to the admissions application and the high school transcript. Finally, relatively few faculty advisors have access to non-testing data provided through ACT or SAT. Overall, the availability of student data to faculty advisors appears to be extremely variable with high percentages appearing in the "Some" category, indicative of the lack of a campus policy on the distribution and utilization of student data in the advising process.

Comparison of data by institutional type yields similar distinctions to other items in this section on faculty advising. Among these distinctions are:

1. Private institutions provide faculty advisors with more comprehensive student information than public institutions.

2. Four-year public institutions provide faculty advisors with the least comprehensive data on their advisees as indicated by the low percentages of those institutions which provide individual information sources to faculty advisors in all departments on campus.

Advising Offices

Two hundred and sixty seven of the 447 institutions (59.7 percent) included in this report have advising offices. Excluded from this section are institutions characterized by the Faculty-Only Model and the Satellite Model (See Section 2). The distribution of institutions with advising offices by institutional type is reported in Table 27.

For most of the tables reported in this section, percentages will not sum to 100% because respondents were instructed to check all items which were applicable to a given question.

Table 26

Student Information Sources Provided to Faculty Advisors

Student Information	Two-Year Public			Two-Year Private			Four-Year Public			Four-Year Private			Total		
	All	Some	No	All	Some	No	All	Some	No	All	Some	No	All	Some	No
Admissions Application	40.0	13.0	47.0	50.0	6.0	44.4	25.9	18.8	55.3	37.8	14.1	48.1	36.1	14.6	49.3
High School Transcript	33.0	26.0	41.0	38.9	11.1	50.0	25.9	21.2	52.9	46.8	17.3	35.9	37.5	20.4	42.1
ACT/SAT Scores	40.0	26.0	34.0	55.6	11.1	33.3	47.1	32.9	20.0	64.1	15.4	20.5	52.6	22.3	25.1
Non-Testing ACT/SAT Information	17.0	20.0	63.0	16.7	11.1	72.2	17.6	28.3	54.1	32.7	16.0	51.3	24.0	19.5	56.5
College Transcript/ Grade Reports	66.0	24.0	10.0	88.9	5.5	5.6	65.9	27.0	7.1	82.1	10.8	7.1	73.8	18.5	7.7
Locally Administered Interest/Placement Test Results	66.0	19.0	15.0	55.6	11.1	33.3	41.2	31.7	27.1	42.3	16.7	41.0	49.0	21.0	30.0
Other Information	4.0	3.0	93.0	11.1	0.0	88.9	4.7	0.0	95.3	6.4	1.9	91.7	5.5	1.7	92.8

Table 27

Percentage By Type of Institution with Advising Offices

Two-Year Public	65.2%
Two-Year Private	37.0%
Four-Year Public	61.5%
Four-Year Private	56.9%
All Institutions	59.7%

In reviewing this section the reader will note the absence of comparisons with the 1983 Survey of Academic Advising. Changes in terminology make it impossible to provide comparable data. The 1983 survey focused on the activities of Advising Centers, units where actual advising was carried out. The 1987 survey focused on Advising Offices in a broader context. For instance, the Advising Office in the Supplementary Model is not responsible for direct delivery of formal advising, yet it was included in this section of the analysis.

Advising Office Delivery Systems

The purpose of this section of the report was to identify the extent to which a variety of service delivery methods are utilized in advising offices.

Table 28 reports the percentages of institutions which utilize specific advisor types in the delivery of services through their advising offices.

Table 28

Advising Office Personnel Utilized

	2-Year Public	2-Year Private	4-Year Public	4-Year Private	Total
Full-Time Advisors	90.1%	31.1%	75.1%	36.1%	65.8%
Part-Time Advisors	51.3	94.4	53.4	56.7	57.0
Non-Faculty Advisors	41.8	33.3	45.5	61.5	49.3
Faculty Advisors	60.2	74.4	45.6	69.3	60.7
Paraprofessional Advisors	12.3	0.0	19.1	7.3	12.9
Peer Advisors	9.2	0.0	26.8	12.0	12.7

Several significant findings are obvious from the data presented in Table 28. First, the predominant advisor employed in advising offices is the full-time advisor. Although there is a lower pattern of usage in the private institutions, full-time advisors are utilized heavily in public institutions.

A second finding of importance is the extent to which faculty are utilized in the delivery of advising office services. For those readers who believe that the terms "advising office" and "faculty advising" are mutually exclusive, it should come as a major surprise that 60.7 percent of the institutions that had an advising office utilized faculty in the delivery of services.

Third, there are substantial differences between public and private institutions in the use of full-time and faculty advisors in advising offices. Full-time advisors are much more likely to be utilized in advising offices in public institutions while faculty advisors are much more likely to be utilized in advising offices in private institutions.

It is apparent that most advising offices use multiple methods in the delivery of services. That is, those offices utilize more than one advisor type. In fact, survey data not presented here indicate that only 15.9 percent of institutions use only one advisor type in the delivery of services.

Finally, peer and paraprofessional advisors, touted by some as a cost effective way to deliver services, are utilized predominantly in four-year public institutions, to a lesser extent in two-year public and four-year private institutions, and not at all in two-year private institutions.

Usage/utilization of group advising formats in advising offices is the focus of Table 29. Respondents were asked "Which of the following group advising formats are used by the advising staff?"

Table 29

Group Advising Formats Used

	2-Year Public	2-Year Private	4-Year Public	4-Year Private	Total
Credit or non-credit courses	29.8%	11.1%	18.2%	14.8%	22.3%
Workshops or seminars	30.9	22.2	34.5	21.6	28.3
Small group meetings during orientation or registration	67.0	66.7	72.7	68.2	68.9
Other	4.3	0.0	3.6	2.3	3.2
Group advising not available	19.1	22.2	21.8	25.0	21.9
N =	94	9	55	88	251

The high percentage (68.9 percent) of group advising during orientation and registration is probably indicative of the fact that group advising is perceived primarily as a load relief strategy on most campuses. The use of group advising as a developmental strategy does not appear to be widely embraced with only 22.3 percent and 28.3 percent of institutions surveyed reporting the existence of courses or workshops, respectively. And, on more than 20 percent of the campuses, group advising formats are not used to support the delivery of services.

Advisor Load and Student Contact

Since one of the perceived advantages of developing an advising office is the impact such an office can have on the availability of advisors and the number of contacts those advisors have with their advisees, the survey posed three questions to respondents:

1. What is the approximate number of advisees assigned to each full-time equivalent advisor in your advising office?

2. On what occasions are students required to contact the advising office?

3. What is the average frequency of contact between staff of the advising office and advisees during an academic term?

Table 30 presents the responses to the first of these questions.

Table 30

Advisor Load: Approximate Number of Advisees Per Full-Time Equivalent Advisor

	2-Year Public	2-Year Private	4-Year Public	4-Year Private	Total
Fewer than 100 students	53.4%	60.0%	33.3%	60.8%	51.7%
100-199 students	4.1	10.0	12.8	15.2	10.7
200-299 students	2.7	10.0	20.5	6.3	8.3
300-399 students	11.0	0.0	10.3	2.5	6.8
400-499 students	15.1	0.0	10.3	7.6	10.7
500-599 students	9.6	10.0	0.0	2.5	5.4
600-699 students	4.1	0.0	2.6	2.5	2.9
700 or more students	0.0	10.0	10.3	2.5	3.4
n =	73	10	39	79	205

At first glance, the data presented in Table 30 seem to indicate that the advisor load picture is much better than anticipated in that more than 70 percent of the institutions report an advisor load within what most experts in advising feel is an acceptable ratio: 300 to 1. Nevertheless, nearly 30 percent of the institutions exceed that acceptable standard and more than 6 percent of the institutions double that standard. The advisor/advisee ratio is higher in public institutions than it is in private institutions.

Measuring the degree of intrusiveness of advising offices was the intended outcome of the second question on required advisee contact with advising office personnel. Data on that item are presented in Table 31.

Table 31

Occasions When Students are Required to Contact Advising Office

	2-Year Public	2-Year Private	4-Year Public	4-Year Private	Total
Class scheduling/registration	69.3%	70.0%	57.1%	62.1%	63.7%
When changing class registration	47.5	80.0	37.5	61.1	51.7
When declaring a major	32.7	70.0	53.6	64.2	49.8
When changing a major	46.5	70.0	55.4	66.3	56.9
Following a report of unsatisfactory progress	32.7	40.0	30.4	51.6	39.7
Before withdrawing	53.5	70.0	28.6	63.2	52.1
For approval of graduation plans	40.6	60.0	26.8	48.4	40.4
Other	6.9	0.0	3.6	9.5	6.7
Contact not required	16.8	10.0	16.1	8.4	13.5

Table 31 presents the opportunity for a rough assessment of the degree of intrusiveness of advising offices. Overall, more than half of the institutions report that contact with an advisor is required for five of the seven transactions listed. Only approval of graduation plans and academic difficulty do not compel contact at a majority of these institutions.

Comparisons of institutional type indicate that more than half of the advising offices at private institutions require contact for 6 of the 7 transactions listed. Furthermore, the four-year private institutions reported the lowest (8.4 percent) percentage on the "contact not required" option.

In contrast, both two-year and four-year public institutions could be viewed as low on intrusiveness. On only 2 of 7 transactions did 50 percent or more of the two-year public institutions require contact. Four-year public institutions fared slightly better on the degree of intrusiveness than their two-year counterparts. Contact was required by more than 50 percent of the institutions for 3 of the 7 advising transactions. Finally, public institutions are about equally likely to report that no contact is required: 16.8 percent in four-year and 16.1 percent in two-year public institutions.

Frequency of advisor/advisee contact during the academic term is reported in Table 32.

Table 32

Average Frequency of Contact Between Staff of Advising Office and Advisee During an Academic Term

	2-Year Public	2-Year Private	4-Year Public	4-Year Private	Total
Zero - One	25.3%	20.0%	36.4%	21.1%	25.5%
Two	45.5	60.0	38.2	47.8	45.2
Three - Five	24.2	20.0	23.6	27.8	25.1
Six or more	5.0	0.0	1.8	3.3	4.2
n =	99	10	55	90	259

Clearly the modal frequency of advisor/advisee contact in advising offices is twice per academic term. Analysis of the data indicate few differences among institutions with the exception that advisees in four-year public institutions are much more likely to make contact with the advising office only once, if at all, during the academic term.

Functions of the Advising Office and the Advising Office Coordinator/Director

In order to ascertain the major functions and responsibilities of the Advising Office and/or its coordinator, respondents were asked to review a set of common advising office functions. Their responses to those functions are reported in Table 33.

Table 33

Responsibilities of Advising Office and Coordinator

	2-Year Public	2-Year Private	4-Year Public	4-Year Private	Total
Advising on General Education requirements	88.7%	88.9%	78.6%	74.5%	81.2%
Advising transfer students	92.8	88.9	67.9	61.7	75.1
Advising underprepared students	85.6	77.8	58.9	64.9	71.3
Advising undecided/exploratory students	91.8	66.7	76.8	64.9	77.8
Evaluating transfer credit	45.4	55.6	32.1	40.4	40.6
Establishing and maintaining advising records	66.0	66.7	75.0	70.2	69.7
Certifying graduation clearance	28.9	33.3	25.0	39.4	32.2
Freshman orientation	81.4	55.6	62.5	64.9	70.1
Training advisors campus-wide	52.6	44.4	64.3	50.0	53.3
Preparing registration instructions and materials	47.4	66.7	32.1	35.1	40.6
Developing a campus-wide advising handbook	51.5	66.7	60.7	50.0	52.9
Evaluating campus advising services	46.4	66.7	41.1	41.5	44.1
Coordinating all advising on campus	64.9	77.8	57.1	63.8	62.8
Other	4.1	0.0	10.7	7.4	6.9
n =	97	9	56	94	261

The most commonly reported functions of the advising offices across all institutions were advising on general education requirements (81.2 percent), advising undecided/exploratory students (77.8 percent), advising transfer students (75.1 percent), advising underprepared students (71.3 percent), freshman orientation (70.1 percent), and establishing and maintaining advising records (69.7 percent). The functions reported as least likely to be performed by the advising office were certifying graduation clearance (32.2 percent) and preparing registration instructions and materials (40.6 percent).

Because much of the literature in advising calls for campus-wide coordination of services, it is important to look at the degree to which coordination functions are part of the role of the advising office coordinator/director.

Those functions are establishing and maintaining advising records (69.7 percent), coordinating all advising on campus (62.8 percent), training advisors campus-wide (53.3 percent), developing a campus-wide advising handbook (52.9 percent), and evaluating campus advising services (44.1 percent). These data indicate that the

relationship of the advising office coordinator/director to the campus-wide advising program is not yet clearly established.

Few distinctions are seen between and among institutional types on the functions of the advising office. The only major variation in this statement is found in the role of the advising office in advising transfer students in the two-year college where 92.8 percent and 88.9 percent of advising offices in two-year public and two-year private institutions respectively, assume that function.

Results of an inquiry on the provision of special advising services for selected student populations are reported in Table 34.

Table 34

Provision of Special Advising Services for Selected Student Populations

	2-Year Public	2-Year Private	4-Year Public	4-Year Private	Total
Transfer	28.6%	40.0%	28.6%	40.4%	33.2%
Undecided	31.9	20.0	58.9	36.2	38.7
Adult	22.0	10.0	28.6	26.6	24.6
Educational Opportunity	19.8	10.0	35.7	5.3	17.2
Underprepared	39.6	50.0	53.6	45.7	44.9
Persons with disabilities	56.0	20.0	46.4	21.3	39.5
Preprofessionals	2.2	0.0	30.4	22.3	16.0
Honors	9.9	0.0	37.5	23.4	21.1
Minority	22.0	0.0	32.1	13.8	20.3
Athletes	22.0	0.0	39.3	22.3	25.4
International	34.1	0.0	44.6	45.7	39.5
Same advising for all students	29.3	50.0	8.9	22.3	23.0

These data show that advising offices are most likely to provide special advising services for underprepared students (44.9 percent), disabled students (39.5 percent), international students (39.5 percent), undecided students (38.7 percent), and transfer students (33.2 percent). If one believes that selected student populations require special advising services, it becomes critical that 23 percent of all advising offices report that they provide the same advising services for all students. That is, they have not implemented programs aimed at those selected student populations.

Finally, it is important to note that four-year public institutions, perhaps because of their mission and scope, provide special advising services for selected student populations to a greater degree than the other three institutional types.

Program and Advisor Evaluation

Much of the literature on effective advising calls for a thorough evaluation of both the advising program and the advisors who function within that program. In Table 35 responses are presented to the question "Is the effectiveness of the advising office regularly evaluated?"

Table 35

Effectiveness of Advising Office Regularly Evaluated

	2-Year Public	2-Year Private	4-Year Public	4-Year Private	Total
Yes	47.5%	60.0%	46.4%	35.8%	42.7%
No	52.5	40.0	53.6	64.2	57.3
n =	101	10	56	95	267

The reader might assume that institutions with advising offices would be likely to have developed formalized methods for the evaluation of services. Proof of that assumption is less than overwhelming. Data from the National Survey show that nearly six in ten institutions do not undertake systematic evaluation of advising services. Excluding two-year private institutions, where only ten institutions reported, public institutions are more likely to conduct program evaluation than private institutions.

The picture on evaluation improved only slightly when methods for evaluating advisors who work in advising offices were examined. As can be seen in Table 36, 42.6 percent of the institutions surveyed utilize no formal methods to evaluate advising office advisors.

Table 36

Methods for Evaluating Advisors

	2-Year Public	2-Year Private	4-Year Public	4-Year Private	Total
Self-evaluation	23.2%	30.0%	22.2%	15.6%	21.3%
Student evaluation	27.3	40.0	33.3	22.2	27.1
Performance review by supervisor	46.5	40.0	53.7	28.9	41.9
Peer review	11.1	0.0	7.4	6.7	8.1
Other	2.0	0.0	0.0	1.1	1.2
No formal methods	39.4	30.0	35.2	54.4	42.6
n =	99	10	54	90	258

Performance review by an office supervisor is the most popular method of evaluation, while approximately one-quarter of the offices utilize student evaluation (27.1 percent) and self-evaluation (21.3 percent). As with program evaluation, it appears that public institutions are more likely to conduct evaluation of advisors. The low percentage of responses on each of the items, however, indicates that the utilization of multiple inputs in conducting those evaluations is not common.

Training Advising Office Advisors

Training of staff in an advising office is viewed as a way by which the goals of the office and the advising program can be better achieved. With that purpose in mind, respondents were asked three questions:

1) Are training programs provided for advising office staff? If so, are they mandatory?

2) What formats are utilized in training?

3) What topics are included in training?

The responses to the first question are presented in Table 37. Table 37 shows the percentages of institutions offering training programs. Table 38 reports the percentages of existing training programs which mandate training.

Table 37

Training Program for Advising Office Staff

	2-Year Public	2-Year Private	4-Year Public	4-Year Private	Total
Yes - training programs	62.4%	60.0%	64.3%	52.6%	58.8%
No - training programs	37.6	40.0	35.7	47.4	41.2

Table 38

Mandatory Advising Office Training

	2-Year Public	2-Year Private	4-Year Public	4-Year Private	Total
Mandatory	65.1%	66.7%	75.0%	66.0%	68.2%
Not mandatory	34.9	33.3	25.0	34.0	31.8

By extrapolating the data from Tables 37 and 38, Table 39 was compiled to provide information on the percentage of institutions which both offered training for advising office advisors and mandated the advisors' participation in that training.

Table 39

	2-Year Public	2-Year Private	4-Year Public	4-Year Private	Total
Mandatory	40.6%	40.0%	48.0%	34.7%	40.1%
No Training or Not Mandatory	59.4	60.0	52.0	65.3	59.9

A clear, but somewhat disturbing picture, is derived from the data in Tables 37, 38, and 39. As in the case of evaluation, the reader might expect that training programs for advising offices would be a common occurrence. Yet, the data show that nearly 60 percent of institutions surveyed either have no training program in their advising offices or do not mandate participation in the training programs they have developed. Four-year public institutions are most likely (48 percent) while four-year private institutions are least likely to hold mandatory training activities for advising office advisors (34.7 percent).

The second question on training dealt with the formats used in the training activities. Results from that item are presented in Table 40.

Table 40

Format of Training Programs for Staff of Advising Office

	2-Year Public	2-Year Private	4-Year Public	4-Year Private	Total
A single workshop of one day or less	33.3%	50.0%	30.6%	32.0%	32.5%
A series of short workshops throughout the year	34.9	50.0	58.3	36.0	42.0
A single workshop longer than a day	4.8	0.0	5.6	8.0	6.4
Method varies by advisor	34.9	0.0	25.0	20.0	26.1
Other	6.3	0.0	11.1	10.0	8.3

Review of the data in Table 40 indicates that the two most commonly used formats for training advising office staff are a single workshop of one day or less (32.5 percent) and a series of short workshops throughout the year (42.0 percent). Further examination by institutional type leads to the conclusion that four-year public institutions are more likely to provide on-going training for advising office staff through a series of short workshops throughout the academic year, while two-year public institutions are equally as likely to employ a series of short workshops as to vary the method of training based on the skills and experience of the advisors being trained.

The final training area surveyed featured a look at the topics included in training activities. The topics were organized to include three elements of training program content: Conceptual Skills, Informational Skills, and Relational Skills. Conceptual skills are defined as the ideas which advisors must understand and, for the purposes of this survey, included importance of academic advising and definition of academic advising. The percentages of institutions including these conceptual skills in advising office training are in Table 41 with a (C) next to them. Informational skills are defined as the things an advisor must know and, for the purposes of this survey, include academic regulations, policies and registration procedures, campus referral sources, career and employment information, and use of information sources. The percentages of institutions including these information skills in advising office training are represented in Table 41 with an (I) next to them. Relational skills are defined as those behaviors an advisor must exhibit in the advising interaction and include counseling skills, interview skills and decision-making skills. The percentages of institutions including these relational skills in advising office training are represented in Table 41 with an (R) next to them.

Table 41

Topics Included in Training Activities for Staff of Advising Office

	2-Year Public	2-Year Private	4-Year Public	4-Year Private	Total
Importance of academic advising (C)	48.5%	50.0%	53.6%	45.3%	48.3%
Definition of advising (C)	33.7	30.0	46.4	30.5	35.2
Academic regulations, policies and registration procedures (I)	61.4	60.0	62.5	50.5	57.3
Campus referral sources (I)	48.5	40.0	60.7	48.4	50.6
Career & employment information (I)	41.6	30.0	30.4	26.3	33.3
Use of information sources (admissions test results, transcripts) (I)	49.5	40.0	46.4	46.3	46.8
Counseling skills (R)	38.6	30.0	37.5	31.6	35.6
Interview skills (R)	26.7	20.0	25.0	21.1	24.0
Decision-making skills (R)	18.8	10.0	21.4	11.6	16.5

Information skills were clearly the most prevalent among topics included in training for advising office advisors, with regulations and policies (57.3 percent) and campus referral sources (50.6 percent) the only survey items which more than half of the institutions included in training activities. Yet, only one-third of the campuses included career and employment information in their training activities.

Institutions placed secondary emphasis on conceptual skills in advisor training. Neither of the two conceptual skills was included by even half of the institutions surveyed, although four-year public institutions were more likely than the other institutional types to include both conceptual items in their training.

There is little emphasis on relational skills training either for all institutions or across institutional types. Only the inclusion of counseling skills was mentioned by more than one-third of the respondents, and the development of decision-making skills was included in a paltry 16.5 percent of the institutions surveyed.

Advisor Information Sources

Availability of information sources is reported in Table 42 (reference materials) and Table 43 (student information).

Table 42

Support or Reference Materials Routinely Provided to Advising Office Staff

	2-Year Public	2-Year Private	4-Year Public	4-Year Private	Total
Aggregate data on the student population	57.9%	77.8%	51.9%	54.9%	57.2%
Advising handbook	58.9	66.7	75.0	65.9	64.6
Employment outlook projections	52.6	44.4	13.5	20.7	32.9
Computerized academic progress records	63.2	77.8	65.4	65.9	65.8
Academic planning worksheets	78.9	88.9	82.7	79.3	79.4
Forms for anecdotal records or contracts	34.7	44.4	51.9	53.7	45.7
Articulation worksheets or agreements between institutions	73.7	55.6	40.4	28.0	49.4
Directory of campus referral sources	63.2	33.3	76.9	70.7	67.9

Table 43

Student Information Sources Routinely Provided to Advising Office Staff

	2-Year Public	2-Year Private	4-Year Public	4-Year Private	Total
Admissions application	60.8%	50.0%	37.0%	55.6%	53.1%
High school transcript	56.7	40.0	38.9	66.7	55.5
ACT/SAT test scores	57.7	50.0	75.9	81.1	69.9
Non-testing information reported through ACT/SAT programs	23.7	20.0	25.9	40.0	29.7
College transcript/grade reports	79.4	90.0	83.3	92.2	85.2
Locally administered interest/ placement test results	83.5	60.0	53.7	62.2	68.0

The final section of this report provides information on the perceived effectiveness of campus advising programs. As will be seen in that section the area which is consistently rated most effective by the respondents is the area of information and its utilization in the advising process. The high percentages found in Tables 42 and 43 reflect those effectiveness ratings. From about one-half to over three-quarters of the institutions routinely supply reference materials to their advising office staff. The only exception to this finding is that less than one-third of the institutions routinely provide employment outlook projections to advising office staff.

In addition, it appears that advising office advisors have access to a reasonable amount of information about their advisees. More than two-thirds of the institutions provide advising office advisors with a college transcript, ACT/SAT scores, and the results of locally-administered placement tests. More than half of the institutions provide the admissions application and a copy of the high school transcript. Only the ACT/SAT non-testing information is provided in less than half of the advising offices of the responding institutions (29.7 percent).

Institutional Effectiveness of Advising Services

Goal Achievement

Survey respondents were asked to rate the institution's achievement on eight goals for the campus advising program. The goals were developed by the National Academic Advising Association (NACADA) and are included in the CAS Standards for Student Services/Development Programs. Respondents were asked to consider the extent to which advising services were delivered or designed to successfully achieve these goals for most students. The following rating scale was used.

1 -- Does not apply; no services have been implemented to address this goal

2 -- Achievement not very satisfactory

3 -- Achievement somewhat satisfactory

4 -- Achievement satisfactory

5 -- Achievement very satisfactory

The mean scores for satisfaction by institutional type are presented in Table 44.

Table 44

Goals of Advising Program Successfully Achieved for Most Students

	2-Year Public	Two-Year Private	4-Year Public	4-Year Private	1987 Total[1]	1983 Total
Providing accurate information about institutional policies, procedures, resources, and programs	3.87	4.11	3.86	4.04	3.95	3.99
Providing information about students to the institution, colleges, and/or academic departments	3.39	3.67	3.36	3.36	3.38	3.25
Making referrals to other institutional or community support services	3.44	3.59	3.24	3.32	3.36	3.30
Assisting students in developing an educational plan consistent with life goals and objectives (alternative courses of action, alternate career considerations, and selection of courses)	3.34	3.33	3.14	3.44	3.33	3.35
Assisting students in evaluation or reevaluation of progress toward established goals and educational plans	3.28	3.33	3.11	3.28	3.21	3.33
Assisting students in their consideration of life goals by relating interests, skills, abilities, and values to careers, the world of work, and the nature and purpose of higher education	3.08	3.15	2.79	3.16	3.05	3.01
Assisting students in self-understanding and self-acceptance (value clarification, understanding abilities, interests, and limitations)	2.86	3.00	2.47	2.98	2.84	2.73
Assisting students in developing decision-making skills	2.58	2.82	2.49	2.68	2.62	2.55

[1]Data are presented in rank order according to the mean responses in the 1987 "total" column.

As can be seen from Table 44, responses for the total group clustered closely around the "achievement somewhat satisfactory" response. Only the goal of providing accurate information about institutional policies, procedures, resources and programs approached the "achievement satisfactory" level.

The most positive tendency in this data existed in two-year private institutions where all eight goals were rated at or above the item mean for the total group. Both two-year public and four-year private institutions rated 6 of 8 items at or above the item mean for the total group. The clearest negative tendency in the data occurred in public four-year institutions where all eight of the items rated below the item means for the total group.

These ratings on goal achievement are consistent with the ratings reported in the 1983 survey both by item and by institutional type. In addition, a comparison with the results of the 1983 survey indicates that providing accurate information was the highest ranked goal in both surveys and the following goals were ranked lowest in both surveys.

- Assisting students in their consideration of life goals by relating interests, skills, abilities and values to careers, the world of work, and the nature and purpose of higher education.

- Assisting students in self-understanding and self-acceptance (value clarification, understanding abilities, interests, and limitations).

- Assisting students in developing decision-making skills.

No discernible pattern emerged for the remaining four goals between 1983 and 1987. In no case did the item mean for the total group vary more than .13 between the two surveys.

Current Effectiveness and Recent Progress in the Campus Advising System

Survey respondents were asked to consider both the current effectiveness of the campus advising program and the progress made in the past five years on eleven organizational and administrative variables. The definitions of each variable are provided below.

Advisee Information
Providing advisors with timely and accurate information on their advisees.

Meeting Student Needs
Providing for the advising needs of your students.

Advisor Traits
Providing advisors who are willing to participate in advising, have at least the

basic skills necessary for advising, and have the time necessary to do an effective job of advising.

Campus-wide Communication
Providing for communication among and between deans, department heads, advisors, and the coordinator of advising if such a position exists.

Program Economy
Meeting students' needs when combined with the expenditure of human and fiscal resources.

Advisor Selection
Identifying and selecting individuals to participate in advising.

Campus-wide Coordination
Providing appropriate levels of coordination, direction, and supervision.

Accountability
Providing advisor accountability, both to a higher level of authority and to advisees.

Training
Implementing a training program for advisors.

Evaluation
Systematically evaluating both the advising program and advisors.

Recognition/Reward
Recognizing and rewarding quality advising.

Table 45 presents the mean effectiveness scores for each item for each institutional type. The respondents were asked to rate the items using a scale of 1 (very ineffective) to 5 (very effective). Scale points 2, 3, and 4 were not given verbal descriptions. In addition, respondents were asked to provide only one rating for the entire campus advising program.

Table 46 presents the mean improvement scores for each institutional type. The respondents were asked to rate each item on the degree to which item effectiveness had changed during the past five years. The rating scale for program improvement was:

1 -- Much less effective
2 -- Less Effective
3 -- No Change
4 -- More Effective
5 -- Much More Effective

Table 45

Effectiveness of Campus Advising Programs

	Two-Year Public		Two-Year Private		Four-Year Public		Four-Year Private		Total	
	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank
Advisee Information	3.49	(1)	3.48	(2)	3.13	(2)	3.76	(1)	3.51	(1)
Meeting Student Needs	3.43	(2)	3.48	(2)	3.16	(1)	3.53	(2)	3.40	(2)
Advisor Traits	3.25	(3)	3.39	(5)	3.07	(3)	3.52	(3)	3.32	(3)
Campus-wide Communication	3.19	(4)	3.59	(1)	3.06	(4)	3.42	(4)	3.28	(4)
Program Economy	3.12	(5)	3.41	(4)	2.83	(5)	3.35	(6)	3.16	(5)
Advisor Selection	2.87	(7)	3.19	(6)	2.80	(6)	3.36	(5)	3.06	(6)
Campus-wide Coordination	3.04	(6)	2.96	(7)	2.66	(7)	3.13	(7)	2.99	(7)
Accountability	2.47	(8)	2.69	(8)	2.13	(9)	2.51	(9)	2.43	(8)
Training	2.39	(9)	2.44	(9)	2.31	(8)	2.54	(8)	2.42	(9)
Evaluation	2.35	(10)	2.30	(10)	1.99	(10)	2.33	(10)	2.26	(10)
Recognition/Reward	1.91	(11)	2.31	(11)	1.85	(11)	2.08	(11)	1.98	(11)
Institutional Type Mean for All Items (Derived from means for individual items)	2.86		3.02		2.64		3.05		2.89	

Table 46

Improvement in Advising Program During the Last Five Years

	Two-Year Public		Two-Year Private		Four-Year Public		Four-Year Private		Total	
	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank
Advisee Information	3.80	(2)	3.89	(2)	3.84	(1)	3.94	(1)	3.87	(1)
Meeting Student Needs	3.84	(1)	3.85	(3)	3.73	(2)	3.82	(2)	3.81	(2)
Advisor Traits	3.54	(6)	3.56	(7)	3.55	(3)	3.53	(6)	3.54	(6)
Campus-wide Communication	3.63	(3)	3.93	(1)	3.55	(3)	3.68	(3)	3.66	(3)
Program Economy	3.59	(4)	3.78	(4)	3.49	(6)	3.67	(4)	3.61	(4)
Advisor Selection	3.40	(7)	3.37	(10)	3.38	(8)	3.46	(7)	3.41	(7)
Campus-wide Coordination	3.56	(5)	3.78	(4)	3.51	(5)	3.58	(5)	3.58	(5)
Accountability	3.24	(10)	3.54	(9)	3.14	(10)	3.22	(9)	3.23	(10)
Training	3.31	(8)	3.56	(7)	3.49	(6)	3.38	(8)	3.39	(8)
Evaluation	3.25	(9)	3.59	(6)	3.31	(9)	3.22	(9)	3.27	(9)
Recognition/Reward	2.97	(11)	3.27	(11)	3.14	(10)	3.16	(11)	3.09	(11)
Institutional Type Mean (Derived from means for individual items)	3.47		3.35		3.47		3.51		3.50	

In considering the effectiveness ratings reported in Table 45, several outcomes are worth noting. First, the items ranked first and second for the total group were consistently ranked first or second by each institutional type indicating that respondents from all institutions feel that their advising systems are the most effective in meeting students' needs and in providing advisors with timely and accurate information on their advisees.

There is also a clear consensus across institutional types on the variables for which the respondents would rate their advising systems least effectively. Accountability (8th overall), Training (9th overall), Evaluation (10th overall), and Recognition/Reward (11th overall) were seen as the least effective dimensions of

advising programs across all institutions. In fact, item means for both the total group and by institutional type were rated consistently below the mid-point on the effectiveness scale.

Finally, overall means for all institutional types clustered near the mid-point of the effectiveness scale. Although the overall means for each private institutional type were above and the overall means for each public institutional type below the total group mean, overall means for all four institutional types are reasonably close together.

Although the effectiveness ratings suggest little to cheer about, the improvement ratings presented in Table 46 provide a glimmer of hope in that, respondents perceive that progress, however slight, has been made in improving their advising systems during the last five years. The total group improvement mean landed squarely between the "no change" and "more effective" responses on the scale, 3.50.

Improvement means by institutional type clustered very closely around the total group mean, but the item improvement means provided less consistent patterns than the respondents' effectiveness rankings. The areas of most improvement were advisee information, meeting student needs, and campus-wide communication. And, although most respondents reported their campuses had made progress on accountability, training, evaluation, and recognition/reward, they were areas of the least improvement for almost all institutional types. In fact, on only one item (recognition/reward) for one institutional type (two-year public college) was there any indication of backsliding during the past five years.

Goals and Effectiveness Summary

There is both bad news and good news in summarizing the data on advising goals and program effectiveness.

The bad news is twofold. First, the concept of developmental advising appears to be no more widely embraced today than it was in the early 80's. The means for the eight goals for advising, anchored in the concept of developmental advising, show only minor fluctuations from the 1983 National Survey of Academic Advising. Miller, Winston, Ender and Grites (1984, p. 19) suggest that developmental advising both stimulates and supports students in their quest for an enriched quality of life; "it is a systematic process based on a close student-advisor relationship intended to aid students in achieving educational and personal goals through the utilization of the full range of institutional and community resources." The data from this representative sample of colleges and universities indicate that developmental advising is still more prominent in theory than it is in practice.

The second item of bad news is that the most significant methods by which advising can be improved are seen as both the least effective and the least improved areas in the organization and administration of campus advising programs. Training, accountability, evaluation, and recognition/reward are the cornerstones of performance in every field or job. Yet, those cornerstones continue to be stumbling blocks in most advising programs.

The good news, however, is heartening. Survey respondents report that there is progress, albeit slight, in the improvement of campus advising systems. The trend line on effectiveness is moving in the right direction, not as quickly or as sharply as some would like, but nevertheless, upward. Those who are impatient with the rate of improvements should be reminded that lasting change, particularly in an enterprise as diverse as higher education, must be an evolutionary rather than a revolutionary process. Consistent small gains over time will, in the long run, lead to substantially improved advising services.

Summary Of Findings

The following statements highlight the results of the third National Survey on Academic Advising.

Coordination and Organization of Campus Advising Systems

- There is a Director/Coordinator of Academic Advising at only one-fifth of the institutions, and most persons assigned this responsibility devote less than full-time to coordinating the advising program. Full-time Directors/Coordinators are most common at four-year public institutions (24.7 percent) (Tables 5 and 6).

- There is substantial difference in the title of the individual responsible for coordinating advising among the four institutional types. The most common title for the person responsible for coordination in each type follows (Table 5).

Two-Year Public	Director of Counseling (33.8%)
Two-Year Private	VP/Dean of Academic Affairs (40.7%)
Four-Year Public	Director/Coordinator of Advising (39.6%)
Four-Year Private	VP/Dean of Academic Affairs (25.9%)

- Those responsible for coordinating advising most commonly report through Academic Affairs. At two-year public colleges approximately one-third of the advising coordinators report through Student Affairs (Table 7).

- The vast majority of institutions employ an organizational model of advising that relies on faculty as the primary providers of advising to students (Table 8).

- Faculty-Only (33 percent), Split (22 percent), and Supplementary (20 percent) are the most common organizational models for the delivery of advising services. Dual (4 percent), Total Intake (5 percent) and Satellite (5 percent) are the least common (Table 8).

- Preferences for organizational models differed by institutional type. Following are the most popular organizational models by type of institution (Table 9).

Two-Year Public	Two-Year Private
Self-Contained	Faculty-Only
Faculty-Only	Self-Contained
Split	
Four-Year Public	**Four-Year Private**
Split	Faculty-Only
Faculty-Only	Split
Supplementary	Supplementary

- Only slightly better than half of the institutions have developed a comprehensive written statement on the purposes and procedures of their advising programs (Table 10).

- Key areas such as recognition/reward, evaluation, training, and selection of advisors are clearly underrepresented in those statements which do exist (Table 11).

- Although slightly less than half (nearly 48 percent) of institutions report the regular evaluation of advising program effectiveness, the percentage is more than double that reported in the 1983 survey (21 percent) (Table 12).

Advising Services in the Academic Unit or Department

Advisor Types

- The primary delivery of advising services in the academic departments is through instructional faculty (Table 13).

- The use of paraprofessional and peer advisors to supplement instructional faculty is an underutilized strategy in the vast majority of academic units/departments (Table 13).

Selection of Advisors

- It is not a common practice for faculty to either volunteer or be selected as advisors. Clearly, faculty are more often than not required to advise as part of their teaching responsibility (Table 14).

Group Advising

- Small group meetings during orientation or registration are the most used of the group advising formats. Curricular and workshop approaches to advising are not common (Table 15).

Advisor Load and Student Contact

- Although advising loads vary greatly between academic units/departments and among institutions, faculty advisor loads of more than 40 advisees are not commonplace (Table 16).

- Private colleges tend to report lower advisor loads and more time spent in advising (Tables 16 and 17).

- Most institutions' advising programs are only moderately intrusive when judged on the required advisor/advisee contact for eight common advising transactions (Table 18).

- Institutional types vary in the degree of intrusiveness exhibited by their advising program. From most to least intrusive, institutional types can be ranked as follows (Table 18).

  --Four-Year Private
  --Two-Year Private
  --Four-Year Public
  --Two-Year Public

- Most faculty advisors have contact with their advisees two times or less per academic term (Table 19).

Training of Faculty Advisors

- Nearly half (44.6 percent) of all institutions reported that there was no mandatory training in any of their academic units/departments (Table 20).

- Of those institutions providing training for departmental advisors, the most common format is a workshop of one day or less (Table 21).

- Training programs for faculty advisors consist primarily of topics related to the informational aspect of their role. The inclusion of important conceptual and relational skill topics is not nearly as common Table 22).

Evaluation of Departmental Advisors

- Evaluation of faculty advisors is not widespread among the reporting institutions. Where evaluation does exist within academic units/departments, the most common methods indicated were supervisory performance review and student evaluations (Table 23).

Recognition and Reward for Faculty Advisors

- Institutions continue to place little priority on recognition or reward for faculty advising. Nearly half of all institutions provide no recognition or reward in any of their academic departments for those who function as faculty advisors. Where such recognition/reward does exist, the most common method is to make it a minor consideration in the promotion and tenure process (Table 24).

Advisor Information Sources

- Colleges provide faculty advisors with information and reference tools in varying degrees. The most commonly available materials include academic planning worksheets, computerized academic progress reports, directories of campus referral sources, and advising handbooks (Table 25).

- For all institutions, the college transcript/grade reports, ACT/SAT test scores, and locally administered placement test results are the items most commonly provided faculty advisors (Table 26).

Advising Services in Advising Offices

- Nearly six out of ten institutions reported some type of advising office in operation on their campus (Table 27).

Advising Office Personnel

- The predominant advisor employed in advising offices is the full-time advisor although most advising offices feature multiple deliverers of advising services. For example, 60 percent of institutions use faculty in staffing the advising office. Use of peers and paraprofessional advisors occurs predominantly in four-year public institutions (Table 28).

Group Advising

- Small group meetings during orientation/registration are a common (68.9 percent) advising strategy within advising centers (Table 29).

Advising Load and Student Contact

- The advisor-advisee ratio is 300 to 1 or less at more than seven in ten advising offices (Table 30).

- Over half of the advising offices require students to contact the advising office for class scheduling/registration, course withdrawal, course changes, and changing majors (Table 31).

- The typical frequency of advisor/advisee contact in advising offices is twice per academic term (Table 32).

Functions of the Advising Office

- The most commonly reported functions of the advising offices across all institutions were advising on general education requirements (81.2 percent), advising undecided/exploratory students (77.8 percent), advising transfer students (75.1 percent), advising underprepared students (71.3 percent), freshman orientation (70.1 percent), and establishing and maintaining advising records (69.7 percent). The functions reported as least likely to be performed by the advising office were certifying graduation clearance (32.2 percent) and preparing registration instructions and materials (40.6 percent) (Table 33).

- The coordination of advising campuswide is only part of the advising office role at about six in ten institutions (Table 33).

- Advising offices are often the "advising home" for selected student populations such as underprepared, disabled, international, undecided, and transfer (Table 34).

Program and Advisor Evaluation

- Approximately six in ten institutions do not undertake systematic evaluation of the effectiveness of their advising office (Table 35).

- Evaluation of individual advisors working in advising offices is also not particularly common. Where evaluation does exist, the most popular method is performance review by supervisor (Table 36).

Training

- Nearly 60 percent of the institutions surveyed either have no training program in their advising offices or do not mandate participation in programs that have been developed (Table 39).

- The most commonly used format for training advising office staff is a series of short workshops held throughout the year (42 percent) (Table 40).

- Information skills represent the most prevalent topics included in training for advising office advisors. There is less emphasis given to including conceptual and relational skill topics in training programs (Table 41).

Advisor Information Sources

- Approximately 50 to 75 percent of the institutions provide an array of support, references, and student information to their advising office staffs. This appears to be one of the highest effectiveness areas revealed by the survey results (Tables 42 and 43).

Institutional Effectiveness of Advising Program

Advising Goals

- Institutions tended to cluster around the "achievement somewhat satisfactory" response when asked to indicate the degree that they were successfully achieving the eight advising goals established by the National Academic Advising Association. Only the goal of providing accurate information about institutional policies, procedures, resources, and programs approached the "achievement satisfactory" level (Table 44).

- The ratings on goal achievement were consistent with the ratings on the 1983 survey both by item and institutional type (Table 44).

- The lowest ranked goals on both surveys were the more developmental-oriented goals of assisting students with consideration of life goals, self-understanding, and decision-making skills (Table 44).

Current Effectiveness

- Institutions agreed that their advising systems are most effective in meeting students' needs, and in providing advisors with timely and accurate information on their advisees. Colleges and universities rate recognizing/rewarding quality advising, systematically evaluating both the advising program and advisors, implementing a training program for advisors, and providing appropriate levels of coordination, direction, supervision, and accountability as the least effective aspects of their advising program (Table 45).

Perceived Improvement in Advising Program During Last Five Years

- Although respondents did not typically rate many aspects of their advising program as highly effective, they perceive effectiveness as slightly better than it was five years ago (Table 46).

Conclusions and Recommendations

The findings from the Third National ACT Survey of Academic Advising depict a somewhat disappointing picture of the status of academic advising in American colleges and universities. The results, particularly when compared to those from earlier advising surveys, reveal little or no improvement in such important areas as the management of advising programs, training, evaluation, and recognition/reward for those involved in advising. Winston, Miller, Ender, and Grites (1984 p. 24) have identified well the components of the ideal advising model:

> Academic advising should be offered only by personnel who voluntarily choose to advise, who receive systematic skills training, who have advising as a specified responsibility, whose performance is systematically evaluated, and who are rewarded for skillful performance.

Until such time that improvements can be realized in these and other key areas, academic advising on many college campuses will, unfortunately, remain a low status/low priority activity, poorly organized and delivered, and largely ineffective in meeting student and institutional needs.

The following conclusions are based on the findings contained in this report. For each conclusion, a suggested action for the reader to consider is also provided.

Conclusions	Recommended Action
Academic advising continues to lack coordination and direction on many campuses.	Designate a person to be director or coordinator of academic advising and allocate enough time to carry out the function effectively.
Persons other than teaching faculty can enhance the delivery of advising services to students.	Seek ways to augment faculty-only delivery models with professional, peer, and paraprofessional advisors.
Lack of a mutually agreed upon and clearly enunciated institutional statement on advising can impede the organization and delivery of advising services.	Develop and communicate broadly a comprehensive, written statement of institutional philosophy and practice in relation to academic advising.
Without systematic program evaluation it is difficult to determine what improvements, if any, are needed in the institution's advising program.	Implement a formative evaluation of the overall effectiveness of the academic advising program.
Academic advising continues to be a highly decentralized function with responsibility left to the various academic units/departments.	Decide on an organizational model for the delivery of advising services which clearly designates authority, establishes accountability, and promotes integration and coordination campus-wide.
Academic advising is not something that all faculty can and should do.	Establish an advisory selection procedure that is based on selecting advisors who have the interest, willingness, and talent to be effective advisors.
It is not necessary that all academic advising be on a one-to-one basis.	Implement some form of group advising (e.g., curricular, workshop, small group meeting) as a supplement to the regular advising program.
To perform effectively, advisors must be assigned a reasonable load of advisees. Too many advisees will inevitably result in unavailability, fewer and hurried contacts, lack of personal involvement and, in general, poor advising experiences for students.	Develop reasonable guidelines on the ratio of advisees to advisor.

Conclusions	Recommended Action
Frequency and length of advisor contact can positively influence students' perception of the advising process.	Install an intrusive advising system that both encourages advisor contact and makes it mandatory.
All individuals engaged in academic advising can benefit from well organized and well delivered advisor training programs.	Provide a comprehensive, regularly scheduled, ongoing advisor development program that integrates the content areas (informational, conceptual, and relational) with the skills, experience, and willingness of the advisors.
Systematic evaluation of individual advisor's performance can improve advising.	Use the ACT Survey of Academic Advising to evaluate individual advisors.
The quality of an individual student's educational/career decisions increases directly with the amount of relevant information available to advisor and advisees.	Develop a comprehensive information system that provides academic advisors with the information, materials, and resources they need--when they need them--in order to work effectively with individual advisees.
Advising centers have proved to be a workable and effective way to deliver advising services to students at a growing number of institutions.	Establish a contralized academic advising center that would serve as a focal point for academic advising for all or some subset of students.
Developmental advising is still more of a theory than it is a practice at most institutions.	Include in your advisor training programs activities that will assist advisors in better understanding and acquiring the skills necessary to be more effective "developmental" advisors.

CHAPTER 3

What Students Think About Academic Advising

Julie Noble

The ACT survey of Academic Advising was developed in 1984 to assist institutions in evaluating their advising programs. A growing institutional awareness of the impact of advising on students' attitudes, self-concept, and intellectual and personal growth, as well as on their performance and persistence in college, has resulted in demands for more research and evaluation in academic advising. In response to these demands, ACT developed an instrument that would examine students' impressions of their institution's academic advising program.

This chapter will examine students' perceptions of their academic advising program, as measured by the ACT Survey of Academic Advising, for three types of institutions. Responses of students from two-year, four-year public, and four-year private institutions will be compared and contrasted. Due to the small number of two-year institutions with available data, the responses of two-year public and two-year private colleges could not be examined independently.

Method

Instrumentation

The Survey of Academic Advising is divided into seven sections: Section I (Background Information) contains a variety of demographic and background items. Sections II (Advising Information) and V (Additional Advising Information) request information about the student's academic advising program, including the type of advisor the student has and the overall impression the student has of the advising system. Section III lists 18 topics that a student might discuss with an academic advisor. For each topic, the student is requested to indicate whether or not the topic was discussed with his/her advisor, and the student's satisfaction with the assistance received from the discussion, where appropriate. Section IV contains items related to the student's impressions of his/her academic advisor. The student is asked to indicate his/her level of agreement with each of 36 statements about his/her advisor. Section VI provides answer spaces for up to 30 locally-designed questions; Section VII includes space for student's comments

and suggestions concerning the institution. A copy of the survey may be found in Appendix A.

Data for the Study

The sample for this study consisted of 19,524 student records from 55 colleges that administered the ACT Survey of Academic Advising between November 1, 1985 and August 31, 1987. Not all instruments processed by ACT during this period were included in the sample; approximately 2,300 student records were eliminated to guarantee that no single institution would be overrepresented in the sample. The sample included 10 two-year colleges (N = 2,268), 13 four-year public colleges (N = 6,830), and 32 four-year private colleges (N - 10,426) from more than 25 states across the U.S. Institutional sample sizes ranged from 50 to 1,367 students.

It should be noted that the data were limited in several respects. First, the data were not obtained through a random sampling of students or of colleges. Moreover, the data were not altered to provide a nationally "representative" sample. Second, the surveys were administered in a variety of ways to different groups of students. The effects of the various administration modes on the data are unknown.

Analysis

Percentages of students' responses were tabulated for each of the background and advising information items in Sections I, II, and V for each type of institution and for the total group. Percentages were also calculated by institutional type for the items in Section III concerning the advising topics students discussed or did not discuss, but should have, with their advisor. Students who indicated that they did not have an advisor were not included in the analysis for sections III, IV, or V (N = 744).

For the 18 advising topics, mean student satisfaction ratings were computed for each institution within each institutional type. The responses to the satisfaction items were recorded so that a higher mean would indicate a more positive response (5 = Very Satisfied, 1 = Very Dissatisfied). "Does Not Apply" responses were not included in the computation of the means. Similar procedures were used for the 36 impressions items in Section IV. Responses to the agreement items were recorded so that the higher mean values would indicate stronger agreement (5 = Strongly Agree, 1 = Strongly Disagree). Mean agreement ratings were then computed for each institution within each institutional type. The distributions of satisfaction and agreement response means for each item were then summarized across institutions within each type of institution; median, minimum, and maximum institutional means were tabulated for each item. This procedure was

used because of the degree of variability in students' responses within institutions and because the distributions of institutional means tended to be somewhat skewed.

Results

Background Information

The percentages of students with various demographic and background characteristics are reported by type of institution in Table 1. The items reported in the table are those for which the percentage differences in student responses between the three types of institutions exceeded 10%. No differences between institutional types were found for sex, enrollment status, type of school last attended, residence classification, and college major.

As expected, two-year institutions had relatively high percentages of students age 26 and over (29%); students pursuing certification, vocational/technical, or associate degrees (62%); students employed over 20 hours per week (33%); and students living in their parent's/relative's home (34%) or their own home (25%). Also, respondents from two-year colleges were less likely to be single (78%) or full-time (79%) students, employed less than 20 hours per week (66%), or living in residence halls (20%) than students from both types of four-year colleges. The two-year colleges and four-year private colleges had similar percentages of black and white students; the four-year public institutions were more likely to have relatively large numbers of black students (22%) than the other two types of institutions in the sample.

Table 1

Percent of Students Having Specific Background Characteristics by Type of Institution

Variable	Type of Institution			
	Two-year (N=2,268)	Four-year public (N=6,830)	Four-year private (N=10,426)	Total group (N=19,238)
Age 26 and Over	29	12	14	15
Black	5	22	6	12
White	89	72	84	81
Pursuing Certification, Voc/Tech., or Associate Degree	62	5	4	11
Pursuing Bachelor's Degree	--	80	85	74
Single	78	89	88	87
Enrolled Full-Time	79	94	91	91
Not Employed	36	47	38	41
Employed 1-20 Hours/Week	30	37	43	39
Employed Over 20 Hours/Week	33	16	19	20
Live in Residence Hall	20	49	58	50
Live in Parent's/Relative's Home	34	12	14	15
Live in Own Home	25	9	11	12

Advising Information

Tables 2 through 8 present the percentage distributions of students' responses to the items in Sections II and V requesting descriptive information about students' advisors. As shown in Table 2, the respondents, as a whole, perceived their institution's advising system as adequate (Mean=3.31). Two-year, four-year public, and four-year private college students did not respond similarly, however, regarding their perception of the adequacy of the institution's advisng system in meeting their needs. The students from four-year public colleges reported that their advising system was less adequate (Mean=3.17) in meeting their needs, when compared to the students from two-year colleges (Mean=3.55).

Table 2

Percent of Students Indicating How Well the Advising System Meets Their Needs by Type of Institution

Response	Type of Institution			
	Two-year (N=2,268)	Four-year public (N=6,830)	Four-year private (N=10,426)	Total group (N=19,238)
5 - Exceptionally Well	20	11	14	13
4 - More than Adequately	26	20	25	24
3 - Adequately	46	50	47	48
2 - Less than Adequately	6	15	10	12
1 - Very Poorly	2	5	4	4
Mean Response	3.55	3.17	3.36	3.31

As shown in Table 3, the respondents from the three types of institutions differed in the type of advisor they reported. For all institutions in the sample, the most prevalent type of advisor was a faculty member (77%), followed by an advising center staff member (15%). However, students from four-year private colleges indicated that they were more likely to have a faculty member as an advisor (85%), when compared to students from the other types of colleges, and were less likely to have an advising center staff member (9%).

Table 3

Percent of Students with Various Types of Advisors by Type of Institution

Type of Advisor	Type of Institution			
	Two-year (N=2,268)	Four-year public (N=6,830)	Four-year private (N=10,426)	Total group (N=19,238)
Faculty Member	70	69	85	77
Advising Center Staff Member	18	23	9	15
Other College Staff Member	4	3	3	3
College-Appointed Peer Counselor	1	2	1	1
I Do Not Have an Advisor	6	4	3	4

As shown in Tables 4 and 5, students from the three types of institutions gave similar responses regarding the amount of input they had in selecting their advisor and the length of time spent in each meeting with their advisor. Nearly 60% of all students indicated that they had little or no input in selecting their advisor (see Table 4), and that they had been with their advisor a year or less (see Table 5).

Table 4

Percent of Students Indicating the Amount of Input in Selecting Their Advisor by Type of Institution

Amount of input	Type of Institution			
	Two-year (N=2,268)	Four-year public (N=6,830)	Four-year private (N=10,426)	Total group (N=19,238)
A Great Deal of Input	22	17	23	20
Some Input	19	15	17	17
Little or No Input	59	68	60	63

Table 5

Percent of Students Indicating Selected Lengths of Time With Their Advisor by Type of Institution

Length of time	Type of Institution			
	Two-year (N=2,268)	Four-year public (N=6,830)	Four-year private (N=10,426)	Total group (N=19,238)
0 to 6 Months	36	35	35	35
7 Months to 1 Year	27	26	25	26
1 to 1-1/2 Years	12	9	11	10
1-1/2 to 2 Years	16	13	14	14
Over 2 Years	9	17	15	15

The results for the items dealing with students' changing advisors are reported in Tables 6a and 6b. For the total group, the majority of students indicated that they had not changed advisors (60%); 31% responded that they had changed advisors once. As shown in Table 6a, the students from two-year colleges (69%) were less likely to have changed advisors than the students from four-year public colleges (57%). Overall, students who had changed advisors reported that they were most likely to do so as a result of changing majors (44%) or through a change in advisor assignments by the institution (17%), as shown in Table 6b. This finding was consistent across all colleges. Note that a relatively high percentage of students from two-year institutions also indicated that they had other reasons for changing advisors (22%); the exact nature of those reasons could not be determined.

Table 6a

Percent of Students Indicating Whether or Not They Have Changed Advisors by Type of Institution

Response	Type of Institution			
	Two-year (N=2,268)	Four-year public (N=6,830)	Four-year private (N=10,426)	Total group (N=19,238)
Yes, Once	25	31	31	31
Yes, Twice	4	7	6	6
Yes, More Than Two Times	2	4	3	3
No	69	57	60	60

Table 6b

Percent of Students Indicating Various Reasons for Their Change of advisor by Type of Institution

Response	Type of Institution: Two-year (N=2,268)	Four-year public (N=6,830)	Four-year private (N=10,426)	Total group (N=19,238)
Changed My Major	36	47	43	44
Moved into an Upper-level Program	5	7	6	6
Advisor's Status Changed	8	12	16	14
Institution Changed Advisor Assignments	18	17	16	17
Not Satisfied With My Advisor	11	8	9	9
Other	22	9	10	11

Tables 7a and 7b summarize the number of times students reported meeting with their advisor during the past year, and whether or not these meetings were sufficient for their needs. Similar responses were obtained for students from all three types of institutions concerning the frequency of meetings; typically, over 50% of the students met three or more times with their advisors, as reported in Table 7a. However, a relatively high percentage (41%) of two-year college students indicated that they had met more than four times with their advisor, when compared to students from four-year public institutions (31%). As shown in Table 7b, students from four-year public institutions were more likely to respond that the number of meetings was not sufficient for their needs (25%), when compared to students from two-year institutions (13%). Responses for students from two-year colleges and four-year private institutions were similar for this item.

Table 7a

Percent of Students Indicating How Often They Met With Their Advisor During the Past Year by Type of Institution

Response	Type of Institution			
	Two-year (N=2,268)	Four-year public (N=6,830)	Four-year private (N=10,426)	Total group (N=19,238)
Never	11	6	4	6
Once	14	16	13	14
Twice	20	26	25	25
Three Times	14	20	23	21
Four or Five Times	15	16	18	17
More Than Five Times	26	15	17	17

Table 7b

Percent of Students Indicating Whether Number of Meetings With Their Advisor was Sufficient by Type of Institution

Response	Type of Institution			
	Two-year (N=2,268)	Four-year public (N=6,830)	Four-year private (N=10,426)	Total group (N=19,238)
Yes	74	61	70	67
No	13	25	18	20
Undecided	13	14	12	13

The length of time students usually spend in meetings with their advisor was similar for respondents from all three types of institutions. As shown in Table 8, over 50% of the students indicated that the meetings with their advisor lasted from 5 to 15 minutes.

Table 8

Percent of Students Indicating Selected Lengths of Time They Usually Spend in Meetings With Their Advisor By Type of Institution

Response	Type of Institution			
	Two-year (N=2,268)	Four-year public (N=6,830)	Four-year private (N=10,426)	Total group (N=19,238)
Have Not Met With My advisor	10	5	3	4
Less than 5 Minutes	9	13	9	10
5 to 15 Minutes	53	53	52	53
16 to 30 Minutes	22	24	29	26
More than 30 Minutes	6	6	7	7

Academic Advising Needs

This section summarized the results dealing with the topics students reported discussing (or not discussing) with their advisors. In addition, the results of students' reported satisfaction with the assistance they received regarding the topics discussed is presented. The results are reported in Tables 9 through 11.

For all institutions, the topic students most often discussed with their advisor was Scheduling/registration (80%), followed by My academic progress (63%), Dropping/adding courses (56%), and Meeting requirements for graduation (56%). The topics the students most frequently had not discussed with their advisor, but felt they should have, included Finding a job after college/job placement (33%), Identifying careers that fit my abilities (33%), Matching my learning style to courses (29%), Continuing my education after graduation (26%), and Clarifying my life/career goals (25%).

Table 9

Percent of Topics Not Discussed, Not Discussed But Should Have, and Discussed—Total Group

Topic		Not discussed, no need	Not discussed, should have	Have discussed
1.	My academic progress	19	18	63
2.	Scheduling/registration	12	8	80
3.	Dropping/adding courses	35	9	56
4.	Obtaining credit through nontraditional means	62	23	15
5.	Selecting a major area of study	55	12	33
6.	Meeting requirements for graduation	23	20	56
7.	Improving my study skills	56	22	22
8.	Matching my learning style to courses	49	29	22
9.	Obtaining remedial assistance	70	15	15
10.	Clarifying my life/career goals	41	25	34
11.	Identifying careers that fit my abilities	37	33	30
12.	Coping with academic difficulties	48	22	30
13.	Obtaining financial aid	62	21	17
14.	Obtaining employment on campus	69	17	14
15.	Finding a job after college	52	33	15
16.	Continuing my education after graduation	51	26	23
17.	Withdrawing/transferring	79	11	11
18.	Dealing with personal problems	74	9	17

Table 10

Percent of Selected Topics Not Discussed, But Should Have Been and Have Discussed by Type of Institution

Topic	Not discussed, should have been			Have discussed		
	Two-yr.	Four-yr. public	Four-yr. private	Two-yr.	Four-yr. public	Four-yr. private
4. Obtaining credit through nontraditional means	17	29	20	15	13	17
7. Improving my study skills	16	27	19	33	21	21
8. Matching my learning style to courses	20	36	25	28	20	22
10. Clarifying my life goals	18	31	24	41	31	34
11. Identifying careers that fit my abilities	24	39	30	39	27	30
12. Coping with academic difficulties	16	29	19	33	27	31
14. Obtaining employment on campus	11	23	14	16	15	13
15. Finding a job after college	23	39	31	19	16	14
16. Continuing my education after graduation	19	30	25	39	21	21
17. Withdrawing/ transferring	14	11	9	24	9	9

The topics students reported discussing with their advisor, and those they indicated should have been discussed, are presented by type of institution in Table 10. Only those topics where the percentage differences in student response between institutional types exceeded 10% are reported. For each topic, the percentages of students indicating that the topic was discussed, or that the topic should have been discussed, are reported for the three types of institutions.

Differences among institutional types were found for the topics students had discussed with their advisors. Variations among institutional types were also found for topics students reported should have been discussed. The more substantial differences include:

1. Two-year college students were most likely to have discussed improving their study skills and withdrawing/transferring than were students from both types of four-year colleges.

2. Students from two-year colleges more frequently indicated they had discussed continuing their education after graduation and career areas that fit their abilities than students from four-year public institutions.

3. A relatively large percentage of four-year public college students indicated they should have discussed improving their study skills, matching their learning style to careers, clarifying their life goals, finding a job after college, and continuing their education after graduation, when compared to two-year college students.

The results summarizing students' satisfaction with the assistance they received from their advisor are reported in Table 11. For each topic, median, minimum, and maximum institutional averages are presented by institutional type. For example, the results concerning students' satisfaction with discussions about their academic progress showed that for two year colleges, 50% of the institutions obtained mean student satisfaction ratings at or below 3.95. The minimum institutional satisfaction mean was 3.68; the maximum was 4.15 for this item. Also note that Table 11 contains the results for only those topics with median satisfaction differences of .25 or greater between types of institutions. For a complete set of items, see Appendix A.

Table 11

Distribution of Mean Satisfaction With Selected Topics Discussed by Type of Institution

Topic discussed	Quantile	Type of Institution: Two-year	Four-year public	Four-year private	Total group
1. My academic progress	Med.	3.95	3.69	3.85	3.82
	Min./Max.	3.68/4.15	3.28/3.97	3.35/4.26	3.28/4.26
2. Scheduling/registration	Med.	4.03	3.78	3.95	3.94
	Min./Max.	3.62/4.32	3.67/4.03	3.46/4.37	3.46/4.37
4. Obtaining credit through nontraditional means	Med.	3.55	3.27	3.47	3.38
	Min./Max.	3.25/3.78	3.05/3.38	3.08/4.23	3.05/4.23
7. Improving my study skills	Med.	3.83	3.43	3.61	3.59
	Min./Max.	3.57/5.00	3.02/3.79	3.10/4.15	3.02/5.00
8. Matching my learning style to courses	Med.	3.71	3.40	3.56	3.54
	Min./Max.	3.31/4.01	3.08/3.58	3.00/4.13	3.00/4.13
9. Obtaining remedial assistance	Med.	3.69	3.37	3.49	3.49
	Min./Max.	3.45/3.81	3.17/3.75	2.84/3.92	2/84/3.92
11. Identifying careers that fit my abilities	Med.	3.78	3.51	3.70	3.64
	Min./Max.	3.00/4.14	3.07/3.69	2.96/3.99	2.96/4.14
13. Obtaining financial aid	Med.	3.59	3.27	3.41	3.41
	Min./Max.	3.36/4.06	3.07/3.60	2.90/4.11	2.90/4.11
16. Continuing my education after graduation	Med.	3.80	3.44	3.58	3.55
	Min./Max.	3.28/4.04	2.98/3.65	3.03/3.98	2.98/4.04
17. Withdrawing/transferring	Med.	3.62	3.35	3.37	3.37
	Min./Max.	3.43/3.95	3.07/3.49	2.89/3.73	2.89/3.95
18. Dealing with personal problems	Med.	3.86	3.55	3.75	3.67
	Min./Max.	3.30/4.50	3.03/3.77	3.17/4.07	3.07/4.50

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Relatively large differences in median student satisfaction ratings were found between two-year and four-year public institutions. Two-year college students indicated greater satisfaction with the assistance they received in improving their study skills, obtaining remedial assistance, and obtaining financial aid when compared to students from four-year public colleges. The smallest difference between the students from two-year and four-year public institutions was for Clarifying my life/career goals.

For all 18 topics discussed, students from four-year public colleges were generally less satisfied than students from two-year colleges with the assistance they received from their advisor. Students from four-year private institutions were typically slightly more satisfied with the assistance they received than were students from four-year public institutions. They were, however, slightly less satisfied than were students from two-year institutions.

Impressions of the Advisor

For this analysis, students' impressions of their advisor were separated into three advisor skills categories established by Habley (see previous chapter): Conceptual Skills, Informational Skills, and Relational Skills. (For a complete listing of the items by skill area, see Appendix B). Students' impressions of their advisors are summarized by type of institution and skill area in Table 12. Median, minimum, and maximum mean student agreement values are reported for each advisor characteristic and each type of institution. Note that the results are summarized only for those impressions items where median student agreement for the three institutional types differed by at least .25 points.

Table 12

Distribution of Mean Agreement With Selected Impressions Items by Type of Institution

Impressions - My Advisor:	Quantile	Type of Institution: Two-year	Four-year public	Four-year private	Total group
Conceptual Skills					
12. Encourages me to assume an active role in planning my program	Med.	3.97	3.79	4.05	3.94
	Min./Max.	3.65/4.31	3.41/4.02	3.32/4.40	3.32/4.40
13. Accepts constructive feedback	Med.	3.56	3.31	3.51	3.47
	Min./Max.	3.04/3.97	3.07/3.71	3.00/4.11	3.00/4.11
14. Encourages me to achieve my educational goals	Med.	4.10	3.78	4.03	3.97
	Min./Max.	3.59/4.33	3.34/4.18	3.41/4.40	3.34/4.40
15. Helps me identify obstacles to be overcome to reach my goals	Med.	3.82	3.52	3.68	3.67
	Min./Max.	3.37/4.17	3.24/3.86	3.11/4.09	3.11/4.17
16. Takes the initiative in arranging meetings with me	Med.	3.50	2.78	3.17	3.23
	Min./Max.	3.00/3.84	2.46/3.66	2.46/4.04	2.46/4.04
17. Is on time for appointments	Med.	3.88	3.77	4.02	3.95
	Min./Max.	3.45/4.19	3.39/4.07	3.47/4.40	3.39/4.40
18. Clearly defines advisor/advisee responsibilities	Med.	3.66	3.35	3.58	3.53
	Min./Max.	3.28/4.03	3.07/3.83	2.90/4.19	2.90/4.19
20. Is willing to discuss personal problems	Med.	3.76	3.54	3.79	3.73
	Min./Max.	3.21/4.06	3.13/3.88	3.29/4.25	3.13/4.25
21. Anticipates my needs	Med.	3.53	3.23	3.47	3.46
	Min./Max.	3.17/3.96	3.10/3.52	2.90/3.89	2.90/3.96
23. Helps me to examine my needs/values	Med.	3.70	3.32	3.64	3.58
	Min./Max.	3.29/4.06	3.13/3.75	2.90/4.03	2.90/4.06

Continued on next page

Table 12

Distribution of Mean Agreement With Selected Impressions Items by Type of Institution
(continued)

Impressions - My Advisor:	Quantile	Type of Institution: Two-year	Four-year public	Four-year private	Total group
25. Encourages me to talk about myself	Med.	3.44	3.08	3.44	3.39
	Min./Max.	2.84/3.72	2.75/3.57	2.90/4.00	2.75/4.00
28. Helps me explore careers in my area of study	Med.	3.51	3.09	3.37	3.32
	Min./Max.	2.91/3.96	2.88/3.61	2.90/3.81	2.88/3.96
Information Skills					
11. Refers me to other sources	Med.	3.70	3.54	3.81	3.69
	Min./Max.	3.57/4.12	3.12/3.95	3.22/4.19	3.12/4.19
22. Helps me select courses that match my skills and abilities	Med.	3.88	3.49	3.86	3.82
	Min./Max.	3.58/4.26	3.31/3.87	3.24/4.19	3.24/4.26
24. Is familiar with my academic background	Med.	3.80	3.52	3.88	3.76
	Min./Max.	3.39/4.12	3.10/3.84	3.09/4.16	3.09/4.16
Relational Skills					
1. Knows who I am	Med.	4.42	3.95	4.36	4.31
	Min./Max.	2.97/4.65	2.89/4.43	3.35/4.67	2.89/4.67
3. Expresses interest in me as a unique individual	Med.	4.01	3.68	3.97	3.93
	Min./Max.	3.42/4.24	3.22/4.00	3.27/4.39	3.22/4.39
4. Respects my opinions and feelings	Med.	4.06	3.85	4.11	4.05
	Min./Max.	3.48/4.35	3.53/4.14	3.58/4.37	3.48/4.37

Continued on next page

Table 12

Distribution of Mean Agreement With Selected Impressions Items by Type of Institution

Impressions - My Advisor:	Quantile	Type of Institution			Total group
		Two-year	Four-year public	Four-year private	
6. Provides a caring, open atmosphere	Med.	3.99	3.73	4.02	3.92
	Min./Max.	3.47/4.30	3.44/4.09	3.46/4.47	3.44/4.47
32. Shows concern for my personal growth	Med.	3.96	3.60	3.90	3.86
	Min./Max.	3.51/4.19	3.19/3.90	3.22/4.39	3.19/4.39
35. Has a sense of humor	Med.	4.19	3.93	4.18	4.14
	Min./Max.	3.58/4.48	3.56/4.27	3.83/4.50	3.56/4.50
36. Is a helpful, effective advisor whom I would recommend to other students	Med.	3.98	3.72	3.94	3.90
	Min/Max.	3.56/4.42	3.40/4.03	3.26/4.50	3.26/4.50

Conceptual Skills. For all conceptual skills items, students from four-year public institutions indicated a relatively low level of agreement with each statement when compared to students from the other two types of institutions. Median agreement ratings ranged from 3.08 to 4.02 for four-year public institutions, 3.17 to 4.21 for four-year private institutions, and 3.35 to 4.12 for two-year colleges.

Major differences in student agreement by institutional type include the following:

1. Students from all three types of institutions differed in their agreement with the item concerning their advisor taking the initiative in arranging meetings. Students from four-year public institutions indicated that their advisors were less likely to take the initiative, when compared to students from four-year private colleges. Two-year college students reported a higher level of agreement than students from either type of four-year college.

2. Students from four-year public colleges were less likely to agree that their advisor encouraged them to achieve their educational goals, helped them to examine their needs, and helped them to explore career areas, when compared to students from both four-year private and two-year colleges.

3. Four-year private and public college students differed on their advisors encouraging them to take an active role in planning their program, the advisors being on time for appointments, and the advisors being willing to discuss personal problems. Students from four-year public colleges indicated a lower level of agreement with these statements than four-year private college students.

4. Students from four-year public colleges reported a relatively low level agreement for items related to their advisor helping them to identify obstacles and their advisor defining advisor/advisee responsibilities, when compared to two-year college students.

Information Skills. For all informational skills items, students from four-year public colleges typically provided less positive impressions of their advisor than students from the other two types of institutions. Median agreement ratings ranged from 3.42 to 3.89 for four-year public colleges, from 3.61 to 4.00 for four-year private colleges, and from 3.65 to 4.02 for two-year colleges.

Observed differences among the three institutional types are summarized below:

1. Two-year and four-year private college students indicated a high level of agreement to the items related to their advisor's help in selecting courses and the advisor's familiarity with their academic background when compared to students from four-year public institutions.

2. Students from four-year private colleges indicated that their advisor was more likely to refer them to other sources for help when compared to the students from four-year public institutions.

Relational Skills. The results for the students' impressions of their advisor's relational skills indicated that both two-year and four-year private college students typically reported a higher level of agreement than students from four-year public colleges. Median agreement ratings for four-year public institutions ranged from 3.60 to 3.95, from 3.88 to 4.36 for four-year private colleges, and from 3.88 to 4.42 for two-year colleges.

Comparisons among the institutional types for each relational skill item yielded the following observations:

1. Both two-year and four-year private college students indicated that their advisor was more likely to know who they are, to express interest in them as unique individuals, to provide an open, caring atmosphere, to show concern for their personal growth, and to have a sense of humor, when compared to students from four-year public colleges.

2. Respondents from four-year public colleges were less likely to agree that their advisor respects their opinions and feelings than were respondents from four-year private colleges.

3. Students from four-year public colleges indicated that their advisor was less likely to be helpful and to be recommended to others, when compared to students from two-year colleges.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to examine differences in students' perceptions of their advising program among two-year, four-year public, and four-year private institutions. Data from 55 colleges that had administered the ACT Survey of Academic Advising were used for this research, including 10 two-year colleges, 13 four-year public colleges, and 32 four-year private colleges.

Differences in background and demographic characteristics among the three types of institutions were examined. As expected, the results indicated that the two-year colleges had higher percentages of older, full- or part-time employed students, and students pursuing certification, vocational/technical degrees, or associate degrees.

Students from all three types of colleges perceived their advising system as adequate. However, students from two-year and four-year private colleges

perceived their advising as being more adequate than did students from four-year public colleges.

Students indicated that the predominant type of advisor was a faculty member; the second most prevalent type was an advising center staff member. Students from four-year private colleges, however, were more likely to have a faculty member as their advisor, and less likely to have an advising center staff member than students from other types of colleges. Two-year college students were less likely to have changed advisors than four-year public college students. A relatively large percentage of all students, however, indicated they had little or no input in the selection of their advisor. The majority of students from all three types of institutions indicated that they had met with their advisor three or more times during the past year. However, a relatively large proportion of students from four-year public colleges responded that the number of meetings was not sufficient for their needs.

The results concerning the advising needs of students, and whether selected topics were discussed or not, revealed several differences among the three types of institutions. For 10 of the 18 topics, a relatively large proportion of students from four-year public colleges indicated they had not discussed the topic with their advisor, but should have, when compared to students from two-year colleges. Two-year colleges and four-year private colleges typically obtained similar results.

Differences between two-year and four-year public colleges were also found for students' satisfaction with the assistance they received from their advisors. For all topics that were discussed, four-year public college students were less satisfied with the assistance they received, when compared to students from two-year colleges. Four-year private college students were typically somewhat more satisfied than four-year public college students, but somewhat less satisfied than students from two-year colleges.

The analysis of students' agreement with the advisor impressions items yielded a somewhat similar pattern. For all impressions items, four-year public college students indicated lesser agreement with advisor impressions than did students from the other types of institutions. These findings were consistent across the Conceptual Skills, Informational Skills, and Relational Skills areas. Two-year colleges and four-year private colleges typically obtained similar results.

Appendix A

ACT Survey of Academic Advising

SURVEY OF ACADEMIC ADVISING

DIRECTIONS: The information you supply on this questionnaire will be kept confidential. The data will be used for research purposes and to help improve the academic advising program at this college. If, however, any question requests information that you do not wish to provide, feel free to omit it.

Please use a soft (No. 1 or 2) lead pencil to fill in the oval indicating your response. DO NOT use a ball-point pen, nylon-tip or felt-tip pen, fountain pen, marker, or colored pencil. Some items may not apply to you or to this college. If this is the case, skip the item or mark the "Does Not Apply" option. If you wish to change your response to an item, erase your first mark completely and then blacken the correct oval. Select only ONE response for each item.

Note that the term **"College,"** as used in this survey, refers to the postsecondary institution administering this survey, and not to a specific unit or department within the institution.

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SECTION I—BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Begin by writing your Social Security number in the large boxes at the top of Block A. Then, in the column below each box, blacken the appropriate oval. Complete the remaining blocks by blackening the single most appropriate response in each case.

A — SOCIAL SECURITY NUMBER (Identification Number)

— —

B — AGE

- 18 or Under
- 19
- 20
- 21
- 22
- 23 to 25
- 26 to 29
- 30 to 39
- 40 to 61
- 62 or Over

C — RACIAL/ETHNIC GROUP

- Afro-American/Black
- American Indian, Alaskan Native
- Caucasian-American/White
- Mexican-American/Chicano
- Asian-American, Oriental, Pacific Islander
- Puerto Rican, Cuban, Other Hispanic Origin
- Other
- Prefer Not to Respond

D — INDICATE YOUR CURRENT CLASS LEVEL

- Freshman
- Sophomore
- Junior
- Senior
- Graduate or Professional Student
- Special Student
- Other/Unclassified
- Does Not Apply to This College

E — FOR WHAT PRIMARY PURPOSE DID YOU ENTER *THIS* INSTITUTION? (Select Only One)

- No Definite Purpose in Mind
- To Take a Few Courses for Self-Improvement or Personal Satisfaction
- To Take a Few Job-Related or Job-Required Courses
- To Take Courses Necessary for Transferring to Another College
- To Obtain or Maintain a Certification
- To Complete a Vocational/Technical Program
- To Obtain an Associate Degree
- To Obtain a Bachelor's Degree
- To Obtain a Master's Degree
- To Obtain a Doctorate or Professional Degree

F — SEX

- Male
- Female

G — MARITAL STATUS

- Unmarried (Including Single, Divorced, and Widowed)
- Married
- Separated
- Prefer Not to Respond

H — WHAT IS YOUR CURRENT ENROLLMENT STATUS?

- Full-Time Student
- Part-Time Student

I — WHAT WAS THE LAST TYPE OF SCHOOL YOU ATTENDED PRIOR TO ENTERING THIS INSTITUTION?

- High School
- Vocational/Technical School
- 2-Year Community/Junior College
- 4-Year College or University
- Graduate/Professional College
- Other

J — INDICATE THE NUMBER OF HOURS PER WEEK YOU ARE CURRENTLY EMPLOYED

- 0 or Only Occasional Jobs
- 1 to 10
- 11 to 20
- 21 to 30
- 31 to 40
- Over 40

K — WHAT IS YOUR RESIDENCE CLASSIFICATION AT THIS COLLEGE?

- In-State Student
- Out-of-State Student
- International Student (Not U.S. Citizen)

L — INDICATE YOUR OVERALL COLLEGE GRADE POINT AVERAGE

- A- to A (3.50-4.00)
- B to A- (3.00-3.49)
- B- to B (2.50-2.99)
- C to B- (2.00-2.49)
- C- to C (1.50-1.99)
- D to C- (1.00-1.49)
- Below D (0.00-0.99)
- Have Not Established a Grade Point Average
- Does Not Apply

M — INDICATE YOUR CURRENT COLLEGE RESIDENCE

- Residence Hall
- Fraternity or Sorority House
- College Married Student Housing
- Off-Campus Room or Apartment
- Home of Parents or Relatives
- Own Home
- Other

USING THE LIST OF COLLEGE MAJORS AND OCCUPATIONAL CHOICES INCLUDED WITH THIS QUESTIONNAIRE, INDICATE YOUR MAJOR AREA OF STUDY. WRITE THIS CODE IN THE BOXES AT THE TOP OF BLOCK N, AND BLACKEN THE APPROPRIATE OVAL IN THE COLUMN BELOW EACH BOX. (IF YOU HAVE MORE THAN ONE MAJOR AREA, SELECT THE ONE CODE THAT YOU FEEL BEST DESCRIBES YOUR EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM.)

N — INDICATE YOUR COLLEGE MAJOR

IF YOUR INSTITUTION HAS PROVIDED A LIST OF ADVISOR CODES, PLEASE SELECT THE APPROPRIATE CODE FOR YOUR *CURRENT* ACADEMIC ADVISOR. WRITE THIS CODE IN THE BOXES AT THE TOP OF BLOCK O, AND BLACKEN THE APPROPRIATE OVAL IN THE COLUMN BELOW EACH BOX. IF YOU RECEIVE ADVISING FROM SEVERAL SOURCES, RESPOND WITH REGARD TO YOUR PRIMARY ACADEMIC ADVISOR. IF AN ADVISOR CODE LIST HAS NOT BEEN PROVIDED, LEAVE BLOCK O BLANK AND PROCEED TO THE NEXT ITEM.

O — INDICATE YOUR ADVISOR

DO NOT TEAR OR STAPLE THIS FORM

SECTION II—ADVISING INFORMATION

Please respond to the following questions about your institution's academic advising system. Note that the questions refer to the academic advising program only, not to personal or career counseling. If you do not presently have an advisor, respond to questions A and B and then skip to Section VI on page 4. If you receive advising from several sources, respond with regard to your primary academic advisor.

A **HOW WELL DOES THE ACADEMIC ADVISING SYSTEM CURRENTLY OFFERED BY THIS INSTITUTION MEET YOUR NEEDS?**

- ○ Exceptionally Well
- ○ More Than Adequately
- ○ Adequately
- ○ Less Than Adequately
- ○ Very Poorly

B **WHICH OF THE FOLLOWING *BEST* DESCRIBES YOUR *CURRENT* ACADEMIC ADVISOR?**

- ○ Faculty Member
- ○ Advising Center Staff Member (Full-Time Academic Advisor)
- ○ Other College Staff Member
- ○ College-Appointed Peer Counselor (Student)
- ○ I Do Not Have an Advisor (Skip to Section VI on Page 4)

C **HOW MUCH INPUT DID YOU HAVE IN THE SELECTION OF YOUR *CURRENT* ACADEMIC ADVISOR?**

- ○ A Great Deal of Input
- ○ Some Input
- ○ Little or No Input

D **HOW LONG HAVE YOU HAD YOUR *CURRENT* ACADEMIC ADVISOR?**

- ○ 0 to 6 Months
- ○ 7 Months to 1 Year
- ○ 1 to 1½ Years
- ○ 1½ to 2 Years
- ○ Over 2 Years

SECTION III—ACADEMIC ADVISING NEEDS

In Part A, indicate whether or not you and your current academic advisor have discussed each of the following issues/topics. For each topic that you have discussed, indicate in Part B your level of satisfaction with the assistance your advisor has provided. (Note: Skip to Section VI on page 4 if you do not have an advisor.)

PART A: TOPICS DISCUSSED WITH ADVISOR				COMPLETE PART B ONLY IF YOU *HAVE* DISCUSSED THE TOPIC WITH YOUR ADVISOR. →	PART B: SATISFACTION WITH ADVISOR'S ASSISTANCE				
HAVE NOT DISCUSSED, AND DO NOT NEED TO	HAVE NOT DISCUSSED BUT SHOULD HAVE	HAVE DISCUSSED		TOPIC OR ISSUE	VERY SATISFIED	SATISFIED	NEUTRAL	DISSATISFIED	VERY DISSATISFIED
●	○	○		**EXAMPLE A:** Learning about overseas exchange programs.	○	○	○	○	○
○	○	●		**EXAMPLE B:** Obtaining information about the Peace Corps, VISTA, etc.	○	●	○	○	○
○	○	○	1.	My academic progress	○	○	○	○	○
○	○	○	2.	Scheduling/registration procedures	○	○	○	○	○
○	○	○	3.	Dropping/adding courses	○	○	○	○	○
○	○	○	4.	Obtaining course credit through nontraditional means (CLEP, PEP, job experience, etc.)	○	○	○	○	○
○	○	○	5.	Selecting/changing my major area of study	○	○	○	○	○
○	○	○	6.	Meeting requirements for graduation, student teaching, certification, etc.	○	○	○	○	○
○	○	○	7.	Improving my study skills and habits	○	○	○	○	○
○	○	○	8.	Matching my learning style to particular courses, course sections, or instructors	○	○	○	○	○
○	○	○	9.	Obtaining remedial/tutorial assistance	○	○	○	○	○
○	○	○	10.	Clarifying my life/career goals	○	○	○	○	○
○	○	○	11.	Identifying career areas which fit my current skills, abilities, and interests	○	○	○	○	○
○	○	○	12.	Coping with academic difficulties	○	○	○	○	○
○	○	○	13.	Obtaining financial aid	○	○	○	○	○
○	○	○	14.	Obtaining employment on campus (work study, assistantships, etc.)	○	○	○	○	○
○	○	○	15.	Finding a job after college/job placement	○	○	○	○	○
○	○	○	16.	Continuing my education after graduation	○	○	○	○	○
○	○	○	17.	Withdrawing/transferring from this institution	○	○	○	○	○
○	○	○	18.	Dealing with personal problems	○	○	○	○	○

MAKE NO STRAY MARKS ON THIS FORM

SECTION IV—IMPRESSIONS OF YOUR ADVISOR

Please respond to the following questions about your current academic advisor. (Note: Skip to Section VI on page 4 if you do not have an advisor.)

MY ADVISOR:	LEVEL OF AGREEMENT					
	DOES NOT APPLY	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
1. Knows who I am.	0	0	0	0	0	0
2. Is a good listener.	0	0	0	0	0	0
3. Expresses interest in me as a unique individual.	0	0	0	0	0	0
4. Respects my opinions and feelings.	0	0	0	0	0	0
5. Is available when I need assistance.	0	0	0	0	0	0
6. Provides a caring, open atmosphere.	0	0	0	0	0	0
7. Checks to make sure we understand each other.	0	0	0	0	0	0
8. Respects my right to make my own decisions.	0	0	0	0	0	0
9. Provides me with accurate information about requirements, prerequisites, etc.	0	0	0	0	0	0
10. Keeps me up to date on changes in academic requirements.	0	0	0	0	0	0
11. Refers me to other sources from which I can obtain assistance.	0	0	0	0	0	0
12. Encourages me to assume an active role in planning my academic program.	0	0	0	0	0	0
13. Accepts constructive feedback concerning his/her effectiveness as an advisor.	0	0	0	0	0	0
14. Encourages me to achieve my educational goals.	0	0	0	0	0	0
15. Helps me identify the obstacles I need to overcome to reach my educational goals.	0	0	0	0	0	0
16. Takes the initiative in arranging meetings with me.	0	0	0	0	0	0
17. Is on time for appointments with me.	0	0	0	0	0	0
18. Clearly defines advisor/advisee responsibilities.	0	0	0	0	0	0

MY ADVISOR:	LEVEL OF AGREEMENT					
	DOES NOT APPLY	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
19. Allows sufficient time to discuss issues or problems.	0	0	0	0	0	0
20. Is willing to discuss personal problems.	0	0	0	0	0	0
21. Anticipates my needs.	0	0	0	0	0	0
22. Helps me select courses that match my interests and abilities.	0	0	0	0	0	0
23. Helps me to examine my needs, interests, and values.	0	0	0	0	0	0
24. Is familiar with my academic background.	0	0	0	0	0	0
25. Encourages me to talk about myself and my college experiences.	0	0	0	0	0	0
26. Encourages my interest in an academic discipline.	0	0	0	0	0	0
27. Encourages my involvement in extracurricular activities.	0	0	0	0	0	0
28. Helps me explore careers in my field of interest.	0	0	0	0	0	0
29. Is knowledgeable about courses outside my major area of study.	0	0	0	0	0	0
30. Seems to enjoy advising.	0	0	0	0	0	0
31. Is approachable and easy to talk to.	0	0	0	0	0	0
32. Shows concern for my personal growth and development.	0	0	0	0	0	0
33. Keeps personal information confidential.	0	0	0	0	0	0
34. Is flexible in helping me plan my academic program.	0	0	0	0	0	0
35. Has a sense of humor.	0	0	0	0	0	0
36. Is a helpful, effective advisor whom I would recommend to other students.	0	0	0	0	0	0

DO NOT TEAR OR STAPLE THIS FORM

ADVISING INFORMATION

Please respond to the following questions about your academic advising program. (Note: Skip to Section VI on this page if you do not have an academic advisor.)

A **HAVE YOU CHANGED ADVISORS SINCE ENROLLING IN THIS INSTITUTION?**

- ( ) Yes, Once
- ( ) Yes, Twice
- ( ) Yes, More Than Two Times
- ( ) No (Skip to Item C)

B **INDICATE WHICH STATEMENT *BEST* DESCRIBES THE REASON FOR YOUR *MOST RECENT* CHANGE OF ADVISOR**

- ( ) I Changed My Major Area of Study
- ( ) I Moved into an Upper-Level or Professional Program within My Major Area of Study
- ( ) My Advisor's Status Changed (Retired, Moved, Deceased, Promoted, etc.)
- ( ) The Institution (or My Department) Changed or Modified Advisor Assignments
- ( ) I Was Not Satisfied with My Advisor
- ( ) Other

C **DURING THE PAST YEAR, HOW OFTEN DID YOU MEET WITH YOUR ADVISOR?**

- ( ) Never
- ( ) Once
- ( ) Twice
- ( ) Three Times
- ( ) Four or Five Times
- ( ) More Than Five Times

D **DO YOU FEEL THE NUMBER OF MEETINGS INDICATED IN BLOCK C WAS SUFFICIENT FOR YOUR NEEDS?**

- ( ) Yes
- ( ) No
- ( ) Undecided

E **HOW MUCH TIME DO YOU USUALLY SPEND IN EACH MEETING WITH YOUR ADVISOR?**

- ( ) I Have Not Met with My Advisor
- ( ) Less Than 5 Minutes
- ( ) 5 to 15 Minutes
- ( ) 16 to 30 Minutes
- ( ) More Than 30 Minutes

If an additional set of multiple-choice questions is included with this form, please use the ovals to record your responses. Twelve ovals are provided for each question, but few questions require that many choices. Simply ignore the extra response ovals.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30
A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A
B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B
C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C
D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D
E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E
F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F
G	G	G	G	G	G	G	G	G	G	G	G	G	G	G	G	G	G	G	G	G	G	G	G	G	G	G	G	G	G
H	H	H	H	H	H	H	H	H	H	H	H	H	H	H	H	H	H	H	H	H	H	H	H	H	H	H	H	H	H
I	I	I	I	I	I	I	I	I	I	I	I	I	I	I	I	I	I	I	I	I	I	I	I	I	I	I	I	I	I
J	J	J	J	J	J	J	J	J	J	J	J	J	J	J	J	J	J	J	J	J	J	J	J	J	J	J	J	J	J
K	K	K	K	K	K	K	K	K	K	K	K	K	K	K	K	K	K	K	K	K	K	K	K	K	K	K	K	K	K
L	L	L	L	L	L	L	L	L	L	L	L	L	L	L	L	L	L	L	L	L	L	L	L	L	L	L	L	L	L
M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M
N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O

SECTION VII—COMMENTS AND SUGGESTIONS

If you wish to make any comments or suggestions concerning this college or its advising program, please use the lines provided below.

Appendix B

ACT Survey of Academic Advising
Advisor Impressions Items by Skill Area

Advisor Impressions Items by Skill Area

Conceptual Skills

5. Is available when I need assistance.

8. Respects my right to make my own decisions.

12. Encourages me to assume an active role in planning my academic program.

13. Accepts constructive feedback concerning his/her effectiveness as an advisor.

14. Encourages me to achieve my educational goals.

15. Helps me identify the obstacles I need to overcome to reach my educational goals.

16. Takes the initiative in arranging meetings with me.

17. Is on time for appointments with me.

18. Clearly defines advisor/advisee responsibilities.

19. Allows sufficient time to discuss issues or problems.

20. Is willing to discuss personal problems.

21. Anticipates my needs.

23. Helps me to examine my needs, interests, and values.

25. Encourages me to talk about myself and my college experiences.

26. Encourages my interest in an academic discipline.

27. Encourages my involvement in extracurricular activities.

28. Helps me to explore careers in my field of interest.

33. Keeps personal information confidential.

34. Is flexible in helping me plan my academic program.

Advisor Impressions Items by Skill Area
(continued)

Informational Skills

9. Provides me with accurate information about requirements, prerequisites, etc.
10. Keeps me up-to-date on changes in academic requirements.
11. Refers me to other sources from which I can obtain assistance.
22. Helps me select courses that match my interests and abilities.
24. Is familiar with my academic background.
29. Is knowledgeable about courses outside my major area of study.

Relational Skills

1. Knows who I am.
2. Is a good listener.
3. Expresses interest in me as a unique individual.
4. Respects my opinions and feelings.
6. Provides a caring, open atmosphere.
7. Checks to make sure we understand each other.
30. Seems to enjoy advising.
31. Is approachable and easy to talk to.
32. Shows concern for my personal growth and development.
35. Has a sense of humor.
36. Is a helpful, effective advisor whom I would recommend to other students.

CHAPTER 4

Developmental Advising

Virginia N. Gordon

Academic advising has been an important part of higher education for many years. While the term "developmental" is a more recent descriptor for advising, the practice of developmental advising by individual advisors is certainly not new. The 1960s and 1970s saw an erosion of the personal attention that was characteristic of advising relationships in earlier years. The great increases in enrollment, the concentration on building facilities, and later, more complex financial problems, all led to a de-emphasis on the individual approach in many facets of student life.

Recent attention to retention as well as an awareness of the diversity of students now entering college (i.e., adults, minorities, and the handicapped) once again has spotlighted the need for a more personalized approach to meeting the needs of college students. Academic advising has always been viewed as a means of providing individualized attention to students. And developmental advising is now considered the vehicle most likely to succeed in providing this personalization.

Unfortunately, this wisdom is easier to acknowledge than implement, however. According to the most recent ACT National Survey on Academic Advising (Habley, Crockett, and Cowart, 1987) developmental advising is not practiced any more today than it was in 1979 when the first national survey was completed. Although most institutions include developmental goals in their advising program objectives, many do not feel they are meeting them, according to the survey. This chapter will offer some definitions of developmental advising and outline some practical applications for implementing a developmental approach at both the programmatic and individual advisor levels.

Developmental Theory

A developmental advising approach requires knowledge and understanding of student and adult development theory and of how theoretical frameworks can provide a foundation for effective advising strategies and techniques. A developmental model should then, in a general sense, incorporate at least four characteristics according to Miller and McCaffrey (1981, p. 21).

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1. It would be based on developmental principles and integrate intellectual and personal aspects of development. Students would be educated about the process and content of their own development.

2. Advisor training would be a key element since highly qualified and competent individuals are critical to a program's success.

3. The total academic community must be involved, including a support group for faculty and academic administrators.

4. The cyclical aspect of the developmental process must be recognized as students progress through cycles of differentiation and integration.

There is no shortage of theory base from which to build assumptions about developmental academic advising. Parker, Knefelkamp, and Widick (1979) identify four basic developmental theory groupings. These groupings are identified and briefly defined in the following table.

Table 1

Summary of Developmental Theories

Theory Grouping	Theory Focus	Theorists
Psychosocial	An individual develops through a sequence of stages which define the life cycle.	Erikson, Chickering, Katz, Keniston, J. Marcia, Sanford
Cognitive	Development is viewed as a sequence of irreversible shifts in the process by which individuals perceive and reason about their world.	Harvey and Hunt, Kohlberg, Loevinger, Perry, Piaget
Maturity Models	Synthesizing the developmental picture by focusing on the simultaneous development of thinking, valuing, relating, and inquiring skills.	Douglas Heath
Typologies	There are persistent individual differences such as cognitive style, temperament, or ethnic background which interact with development.	Roy Heath, Newcomb, Clark and Trow, Cross

Although each of these theory groupings has significant merit as a theory base for developmental academic advising, Chickering's psychosocial theory (1969) which points out that although individuals grow and change in many ways, the college years are a time of considerable development, provides a useful framework for

advising. Chickering describes the developmental tasks of college-age students in terms of seven vectors.

1. Developing Competence - increased skills in intellectual, physical, and social competence lead to a sense of confidence that one is capable of handling and mastering a range of tasks.

2. Managing Emotions - increasing awareness of one's feelings which allows flexible control and expression.

3. Developing Autonomy - confronting a series of issues which ultimately lead to the recognition of one's independence.

4. Establishing Identity - integrating the many facets of one's experience and negotiating a realistic and stable self-image.

5. Freeing Interpersonal Relationships - increasing tolerance and acceptance of differences between individuals and increasing capacity for mature and intimate relationships.

6. Developing Purpose - assessing and clarifying interests, educational and career options, and lifestyle preferences and integrating those factors in setting coherent direction for one's life.

7. Developing Integrity - defining a set of values that guides one's actions.

Although each of Chickering's seven vectors can serve as a focus for the delivery of academic advising services, the three key vectors--developing competence, developing autonomy, and developing purpose--can provide the basis for a strong developmental advising program.

The advisor can assist in developing a student's sense of competence by helping to identify both strengths and weaknesses and by recommending courses that stretch, but do not overextend those strengths, that address but do not focus on weaknesses. In developing a student's sense of autonomy an advisor must understand that it is the right of the the student to make decisions just as it is the responsibility of the student to live with those decisions. And, in the development of purpose, the advisor must assist the student in developing an awareness of what is involved in educational and career decision-making. Helping students set life goals and develop action plans for implementation is, then, an important aspect of developmental advising.

From Developmental Theory to Advising Practice

Two different developmental frameworks for academic advising were offered in 1972, one by Burns Crookston and one by Terry O'Banion. Crookston's approach evolved out of the turmoil of the 1960s when students were insisting, among other things, on more personal attention to their academic concerns. He compared the prescriptive advisor with the developmental advisor in terms of how specific student characteristics were viewed (e.g. abilities, motivation, maturity, control, responsibility, and learning output). A prescriptive advisor focused on student limitations and assumed students to be naturally immature and irresponsible. Developmental advisors, on the other hand, concentrated on students' potentialities and saw students as striving, responsible, and capable of self-direction.

O'Banion discussed students in community colleges and their unique need for a total student development approach. His developmental model focuses on the skills, knowledge and attitudes required for good academic advising. He outlines five sequential tasks which need to be addressed in the advising process. These tasks are (1) the exploration of life goals, (2) the exploration of vocational/career goals, (3) the choice of program, (4) the choice of courses, and (5) the scheduling of courses. O'Banion contends that advising should concentrate initially on the exploration of students' life and career goals. Only then can a meaningful choice of program occur.

O'Banion maintains that many advising contacts start with course choice and scheduling. This may be due to the lack of training advisors receive in understanding how students develop during the college years intellectually, emotionally, socially and in the many other areas that affect their performance in the classroom. This lack of understanding of student development in turn leads to the convenient assumption that students have undertaken a reasoned decision-making process, and as a result, exhibit a high level of commitment to a particular major. Although data on choice of major indicates that few (if any) students have systematically engaged in such a process, such an assumption leads advisors to the conclusion that the focus of academic advising should be on the course selection and scheduling process.

Since the work of Crookston and O'Banion, many additional definitions of developmental advising have been offered. Crockett and Habley (1987, p. 9) offer the following definition:

> Academic advising is a developmental process which assists students in the clarification of their life and career goals and in the development of educational plans for the realization of these goals. It is a decision making process by which students realize their maximum educational potential through communication and information exchanges with an advisor; it is ongoing, multifacted, and the responsibility of both students and advisors.

> The advisor serves as a facilitator of communication, a coordinator of learning experiences through course and career planning and academic progress review, and an agent of referral to other campus agencies as necessary.

And Ender, Miller and Winston (1982) suggest that "the most appropriate models for academic advising are grounded in human/student development theory and are based on the establishment of a personal and caring relationship between the student and the advisor."

A developmental approach to academic advising, then, should go beyond requirements and registration. There must be a context within which these processes fit, and that context needs to be the development of an educational and career plan by the student and the advisor.

Developmental advising focuses on helping students identify life goals, acquire skills and attitudes which promote intellectual and personal growth, and become successful students in a way that is uniquely theirs. Ender, Winston and Miller (1982, p. 7) have proposed seven conditions that are essential to developmental advising:

1. Academic advising is a continuous process with an accumulation of personal contacts between advisor and student - these contacts have both direction and purpose.

2. Advising must concern itself with quality-of-life issues, and the advisor has a responsibility to attend to the quality of the student's experience in college.

3. Advising is goal related. The goals should be established and owned by the student and should encompass academic, career and personal development areas.

4. Advising requires the establishment of a caring human relationship - one in which the advisor must take primary responsibility for its initial development.

5. Advisors should be models for students to emulate, specifically demonstrating behaviors that lead to self-responsibility and self-directedness.

6. Advising should seek to integrate the services and expertise of both academic and student affairs professionals.

7. Advisors should seek to utilize as many campus and community resources as possible.

The advantages of a developmental approach far surpass any disadvantages. Some advantages are:

- o It provides a student-centered base from which to develop program objectives;
- o It offers a framework for organizing and integrating programs;
- o It provides a goal-driven impetus for advising programs;
- o Every student is considered an individual with special needs;
- o A learning environment is created which is shared by student and advisor; and
- o An individual student's growth and development is supported by the system as well as by the individual advisor.

Developmental Goals for Advising

Developmental advising can be conceived and implemented at three levels: the organizational, the advisor, and the student level. At the organizational level, a statement of goals for an advising program should reflect developmental principles. Working with the Council for the Advancement of Standards, the National Academic Advising Association (NACADA) has developed a series of eight developmentally-focused goals for advising programs. These goals, which were studied in the ACT Third National Survey of Academic Advising, are:

1. Assisting students in self-understanding and self-acceptance (value clarification, understanding abilities, interests, and limitations).
2. Assisting students in their consideration of life goals by relating interests, skills, abilities, and values to careers, the world of work, and the nature and purpose of higher education.
3. Assisting students in developing an educational plan consistent with life goals and objectives (alternative courses of action, alternate career considerations, and selection of courses).
4. Assisting students in developing decision-making skills.
5. Providing accurate information about institutional policies, procedures, resources, and programs.
6. Making referrals to other institutional or community support services.

7. Assisting students in evaluation or reevaluation of progress toward established goals and educational plans.

8. Providing information about students to the institution, colleges, and/or academic departments.

At the advisor level, a personal advising philosophy incorporating developmental principles must be formulated and exhibited by the advisor if a developmental approach is to be implemented. Advisors need a basic knowledge of student and adult developmental theory. Advisor training programs can help expand and refine advising techniques based on this theoretical understanding. Advisors can learn how to facilitate an individual advisee's academic growth through personalized contact and monitoring.

In Chapter 3 of this monograph, Noble discusses what students think about academic advising. It is apparent that students want the personalized approach which is at the heart of developmental advising. Students want to discuss with their advisor careers that fit their abilities, for example, and how to find a job after college. According to the survey, while some advisors had helped students clarify life and career goals, a fourth of the students indicated these topics were not discussed even though the students wanted such interaction. Winston and Sandor (1984) and Fielstein (1987) also found that most students want to form a relationship with their advisor that is personal and that goes beyond a knowledge of their file, test scores, and grades.

When developmental advising works, students sense a comfortable and friendly atmosphere. They feel that their advisors are mentors and advocates for their success. Overall, students are more likely to persist and view the college experience as an important and positive force in their lives if their advisors adopt a developmental approach to advising.

Developmental Strategies and Techniques

There are many approaches and methods for implementing developmental advising. Developmental advising activities include:

- Assessment activities to identify and clarify the advisee's values, interests, abilities and goals;

- Activities that help advisees relate self-information to occupational and educational information;

- Activities that promote broad exploration of educational and vocational options;

- Activities that provide for reality testing; and
- Assistance with implementation of choices and decision-making skills.

Two avenues for implementing these activities are through program implementation and individual advising.

Program Implications. Some ways in which developmental advising can be implemented programmatically are through:

- Special aspects of orientation programs,
- A freshman seminar or orientation courses,
- Well-organized, comprehensive advising services, including accessible location, relevant printed materials, and integrated programs (e.g., extra-curricular activities),
- Well trained, competent advisors with realistic advisee loads,
- Experiential courses and programs (e.g., field experience courses in subject matter, co-op and internship opportunities),
- Integrated career counseling and exploration opportunities, including career exploration courses,
- Comprehensive career libraries including interactive computerized career systems,
- An all-campus committee to coordinate academic, personal and career services (made up of faculty, administrators, student affairs professionals).

Implications for Individual Advising

A developmental approach at the individual level is at the heart of the advising process. Advisors are only as effective as their ability to communicate with students in advising contacts. There is often confusion and debate as to the difference between advising and counseling. While advising is generally perceived as informational and explanatory in nature (Potter, 1978), advisors may also need to help students sort out various academic, personal and career issues that often surface in an advising exchange. This is really what developmental advising is all about. Students need to feel the support of their advisor as they focus on an event or relationship that is impeding their academic progress. The advising skills of

listening, problem solving, and referring are all called into play when this occurs. Referral skills are also critical to this process. Examples of advising tasks and developmental advising strategies for accomplishing them are outlined in Table 2.

Table 2

Developmental Advising
Advising Tasks and Developmental Strategies

Advising Tasks	Developmental Strategies
Advising:	
-Convey general academic information	Convey information in context of student's relationship with the institution
-Convey procedural information	
-Monitor academic progress	Monitor student's knowledge and understanding of campus resources and his/her ability to access them
-Record student contacts in record	
-Assist students with faculty contact	
-Instruct students in appeal procedure	Help students understand reasons for certain institutional and advising policies
-Enforce academic standards	
-Hold regular office hours	Act as student's advocate when appropriate
-Monitor student comments and refer concerns to proper source	
Scheduling:	
-Pre-schedule student for next term	Approach scheduling process as an opportunity to increase knowledge and develop skills rather than a one-time event
-Interpret test results and institutional requirements	
-Monitor course selection	Help student schedule in terms of personal abilities and goals
-Explain curricular intricacies and major requirements	Interpret tests in clear and sensitive manner
-Assess appropriateness of course schedule	Use a holistic approach to formulating schedules so that an appreciation for an appreciation for an integrated program is developed
Procedural:	
-Perform necessary paper work to assure institutional requirements are met	Maintain records with understanding that they are personal and confidential
-Verify documents and accuracy of procedural actions	Student's problems may sometimes be resolved through paper transactions
Counseling:	
-Help student explore majors or confirm major choices	Help students assess their values, interests, abilities and goals
-Assist students with long-range academic planning	Help students relate their personal strengths and limitations to academic and career opportunities
-Help students explore or confirm choices within context of individual and institutional needs	Refer students to relevant human, printed and computer resources
-Help students negotiate decision making process	Assist with decision making and the establishment of a realistic action plan based on student's unique needs
-Make realistic and relevant referrals to campus resources	

Developmental advising also incorporates many aspects of the decision making process. Most advising transactions involve decisions of one type or another. An important role of advisors is to help students learn the decision making process and the skills necessary to become effective and independent decision makers.

Decision theory can help advisors understand why and how advisees approach the choice process. Each student comes to the advising situation with a variety of decision making experiences and skills. As advisors become aware of the level of understanding and expertise the student possesses, the academic advising relationship can become a vehicle for a great deal of learning, experimenting, reality testing, goal setting and implementation of educational and career decisions (Gordon, 1986).

Special Populations

While all students benefit from developmental advising, this approach is particularly beneficial to groups of students with special needs. Examples of these special groups include underprepared students, adults, honors students, minorities, disabled students, and students in academic difficulty.

Developmental advising for a special group of students requires a knowledge of that group's unique characteristics and a sensitivity to its concerns--a more personalized, intrusive advising style. A developmental advisor will become an expert about the resources on campus that are geared to serve the students' special needs.

Conclusion

The following are key concepts involved in implementing a developmental approach to advising:

1. Developmental advising is an approach which focuses on students' individuality as they begin to identify and clarify educational, career and life goals. It also assists students in developing educational plans to achieve these goals.

2. Student, career and adult development theory is the most promising foundation for an advising philosophy, advising objectives, and advising programming.

3. Practical applications of a developmental advising approach include establishing an integrated set of services which includes orientation, advising, experiential opportunities and career planning.

4. Developmental advisors are trained in developmental theory; communication and referral skills reflecting a developmental philosophy; career exploration techniques; and the needs of special populations such as honors students, adults, minorities, and undecided students.

5. Most students want an advisor who will enter into a personal, caring relationship in which academic and career decision-making issues are discussed and where concern is shown for them as individuals.

6. Developmental advising can promote retention because it provides the personal touch that many students need in order to adjust to, and succeed in the educational process.

In summarizing the results of the Third National Survey on the Status of Academic Advising in Chapter 2 of this monograph, Habley and Crockett offer recommendations for improving this important service. Many of the recommendations are grounded in developmental advising principles. They recommend that a "comprehensive, regularly scheduled, ongoing advisor development program" be initiated. The developmental approach to advising must be acknowledged, accepted, and practiced by all types of advisors if it is to become a reality.

CHAPTER 5

The Organization of Advising Services

Wesley R. Habley

Although there has been a dramatic increase in the literature on most aspects of academic advising during the last ten years, little has been accomplished in the study of the ways in which advising programs are organized. Yet, organizational framework, along with training and additional staff, was second only to greater administrative recognition as the most pressing need of the 754 institutions that participated in the 1983 National Survey of Academic Advising (Crockett, Levitz). In response to that pressing need the ACT Third National Survey of Academic Advising (Habley, Crockett, and Cowart, 1987) focused on organizational models.

The lack of attention to organizational models has been fostered by two themes which pervade the literature on advising programs. The first theme is the avoidance of discussion of organizational models on the basis of the belief that because each institution is unique, there is limited transferability of organizational models from one institution to another. Habley (1983) suggested however, that organizational patterns do exist and that those patterns have general inter-institutional applicability.

The second theme in the advising literature has been the tendency to blur the distinction between an organizational model and the delivery of services within that model. The literature is replete with discussions of delivery systems which focus on faculty advising, self-advising, advising centers, peer advising, professional staff advising, and computer-assisted advising. As a result, there have been few successful attempts to distinguish between those who deliver advising services and the organizational models through which those services are delivered.

In the first attempt to verify the existence of the seven organizational models, Habley and McCauley (1987) studied an at-hand population to ascertain the prevalence of the models and also collected data which provided insights on the type and size of institutions employing each of the organizational models. In addition, institutions participating in the ACT Third National Survey of Academic Advising were asked to identify the organizational model employed on their campuses (see Chapter 2). As a result of this identification and because of the

sampling techniques used in the National Survey, it becomes possible to generalize the findings to the population at large.

The purpose of this chapter, then, is to explore the relationship between organizational models on the issues of goal achievement, program effectiveness, and five-year changes in effectiveness which were the focus in section four of the National Survey, overall institutional effectiveness. Respondents were asked to rate their advising programs on eight goals, 11 effectiveness variables, and five-year change in each of the 11 effectiveness variables.

Although means were calculated for each model by item, those means are not reported here. They can be reviewed in the tables found in Chapter 2. Because the mean is affected by the number of institutions employing a particular organizational model, a more sensitive statistical treatment was conducted. The Student-Newman-Kuhls (SNK) procedure to test the significance of item means taken two at a time was employed with .05 set as the level of significance. The results of the SNK treatment are reported in later sections of this chapter.

Organizational Models for Academic Advising

In order to study the relationship between institutional characteristics and academic advising organizational models, it is necessary to review the seven organizational models proposed by Habley. These models are presented and discussed in the following paragraphs.

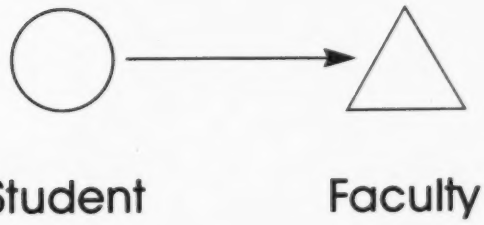
The diagram of each model represents the organization of services by depicting student interaction with those who are responsible for advising. Students are represented by circles, faculty (those advising in the academic subunits) are represented by triangles, and advising offices are represented by squares. Solid lines indicate that a primary advising relationship in which the advisor has original jurisdiction for monitoring or approving academic transactions exists. Broken lines depict the clearinghouse and referral resource functions of advising offices where advice may be given but responsibility for the approval of academic transactions is not delegated.

Faculty-Only Model

As reported in Chapter 2, the primary model for the delivery of academic advising is the faculty-only model. In this model each student is assigned to a specific faculty advisor. Under most circumstances, advisor assignment is based on the major field of the student. Students who are undecided about a major are assigned to faculty members in the liberal arts, distributed among faculty who volunteer to advise undecided students, or distributed among faculty members who have fewer major advisees assigned to them. This is the only model presented in which the designation of faculty refers to both an organizational model and a delivery

system. All other organizational models may be staffed by faculty, professional, paraprofessional, peer, or some combination of those four advisor types. Although there may be an individual designated as the coordinator of campus advising in this model, generally the supervision of faculty advising is decentralized in the individual academic subunits. A diagram of the faculty-only model is shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1
Faculty-Only Model

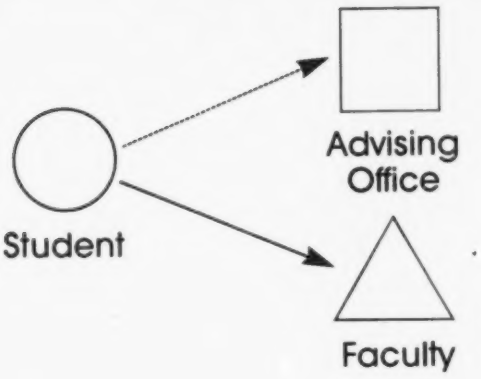


Supplementary Advising Model

In this model, as in the faculty-only model, faculty members serve as advisors for all students in the institution. However, this model features an academic advising office which serves as both a clearinghouse for advising information and as a source of referral to advising as well as other support services on the campus. Personnel who work in the advising office in this model generally have no original jurisdiction for monitoring or approving academic transactions. All such transactions are the responsibility of the individual student's faculty advisor. In addition, advising office staff may be charged with the responsibility of assisting faculty advisors by providing resources, implementing advisor training, and developing, maintaining, and updating advising information systems. The advising

office is usually supervised by an individual who is charged with the functions described above, while direct supervision of faculty advisors is decentralized in the individual academic subunits. A diagram of the supplementary model is shown in Figure 2.

Figure 2
Supplementary Advising Model



Split Advising Model

In the split advising model, initial advising of students is split between faculty members in academic subunits and the staff of an advising office. The advising office has original jurisdiction for monitoring or approving academic transactions for a specified group of students, while instructional faculty in academic subunits maintain jurisdiction over the remainder of the students.

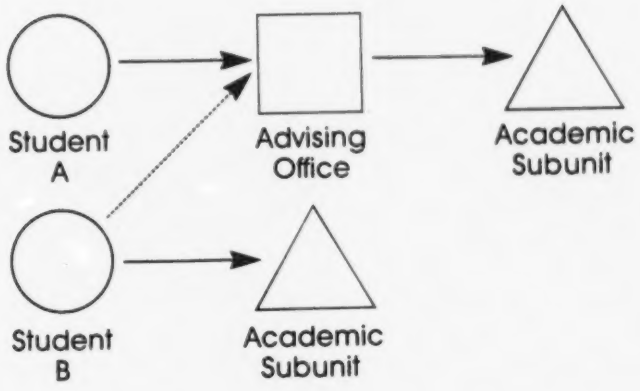
The most common application of the split advising model is that faculty advisors are responsible for advising students with declared majors while advising office staff are responsible for advising undecided students. Other applications of this model include an advising office for underprepared students, an advising office for nontraditional students, or an advising office for student athletes.

Advising jurisdiction moves from the advising office to advising in the academic subunits when the student has met an institutionally predetermined set of conditions. For example, the advising jurisdiction for students who are undecided changes from the advising office to the appropriate academic subunit when a student formally declares a major.

The advising office in this model includes an individual who is responsible for supervising the advising staff necessary to carry out the specialized advising functions. The advising office coordinator may also be given additional campuswide responsibilities such as those outlined in the supplementary model.

In addition, the advising office in this model usually serves as a clearinghouse on advising information and as a referral resource for students who are assigned to advisors in the academic subunits. However, the advising office, except in rare instances, maintains no original jurisdiction for the approval of academic transactions for students who are assigned advisors in the academic subunits. A diagram of the split advising model is shown in Figure 3.

Figure 3
Split Advising Model

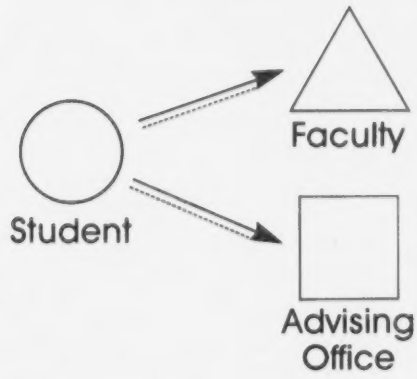


Dual Advising Model

This model is characterized by shared responsibility for advising each student. Faculty members provide advising which is directly related to the student's discipline or choice of major, and advising office staff provide advising related to the general education requirement, institutional academic policies and registration procedures. In the dual advising model, personnel in the advising office are usually responsible for advising all students who are undecided.

The advising office in this model includes an individual who is responsible for supervising the advising office staff. The advising coordinator is usually charged with additional campuswide advising responsibilities which were discussed in previous models. A diagram of the dual advising model is shown in Figure 4.

Figure 4
Dual Advising Model



Total Intake Model

The total intake model for academic advising vests initial advising responsibility for all students in an advising office. The advising office has original jurisdiction for the approval of all advising transactions until a set of institutionally

predetermined conditions has been met. In some cases, those conditions may consist only of a time limit, such as completion of the first semester, while in other advising systems a more complex set of conditions may be prescribed. Examples of more complex conditions might be completion of 45 semester hours, academic good standing, completion of the general educational requirement, and satisfactory completion of core courses stipulated by a specific academic program. Once the student has met the predetermined set of conditions, jurisdiction for advising shifts from the advising office to the academic subunit in which the student is majoring.

The total intake model has three major variations based on the scope of responsibilities given to the unit in which advising takes place. Briefly stated, there are three major areas of responsibility which relate to the total-intake model: 1) the development of curriculum and the administration of instruction; 2) the development and enforcement of academic policies; and 3) the provision of advising services. These three basic variations are presented in Chart 1.

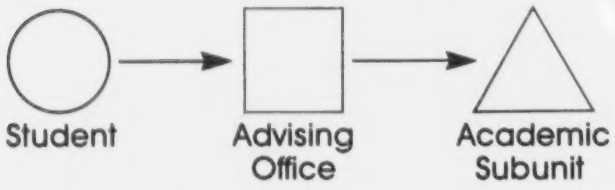
Chart 1

Responsibility

	Curriculum Instruction	Academic Policy	Academic Advising
Variation I	Yes	Yes	Yes
Variation II	No	Yes	Yes
Variation III	No	No	Yes

The advising office in this model is usually headed by a director (dean) who is charged with responsibilities commensurate with each of the variations shown above. In addition, the director may be charged with coordinating the campus advising system and providing support for advising which takes place in the academic subunits. A diagram of the total intake model is shown in Figure 5.

Figure 5
Total Intake Model



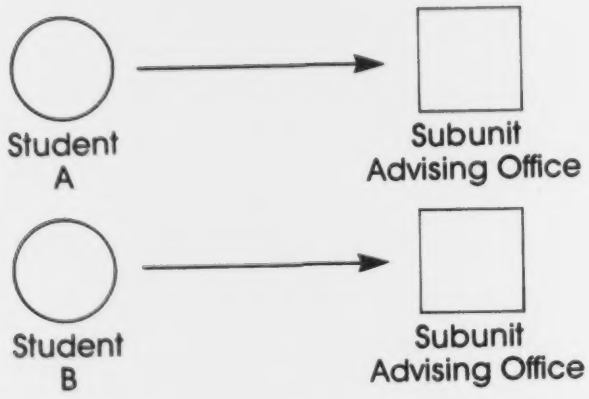
Satellite Model

The satellite model features advising offices which are maintained and controlled within the academic subunits on the campus. Satellite advising offices provide advising for all students whose majors are within a particular college or school. In addition, satellite models are located in close physical proximity to the academic subunits they represent. Undecided students are usually advised by staff in a satellite office which is established principally to meet their needs, although the office may also provide clearinghouse and referral services to all students on the campus.

In a few instances the subunit satellite offices are responsible for advising students from the point of matriculation to departure from the institution. But, for the most part, advising shifts from the satellite office to a specific faculty member in the discipline in which the student is majoring. This shift usually takes place when a set of predetermined conditions has been fulfilled by the student.

Generally, the individual who supervises the satellite office for undecided students is given the responsibility for coordinating the campus advising system and providing support for all advisors. A diagram of the satellite model is shown in Figure 6.

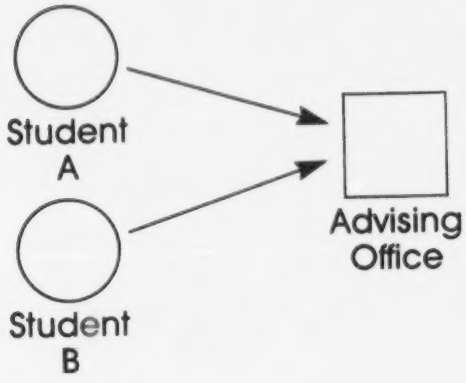
Figure 6
Satellite Model



Self-Contained Model

In the self-contained model all academic advising, from orientation through departure from the institution, takes place in a centralized unit. The centralized unit is directed by a dean or director who supervises all advising functions that take place on the campus. A diagram of the self-contained model is shown in Figure 7.

Figure 7
Self-Contained Model



Goal Achievement and Program Effectiveness

Utilizing the seven organizational models described in this chapter, data from the Third ACT Survey on Academic Advising was analyzed for the achievement of eight advising program goals and eleven effectiveness variables. The advising program goals were those developed by the National Academic Advising Association and included in the CAS Standards and Guidelines for Student Services/Student Development Programs (1986). The eleven effectiveness variables were derived from multiple sources which included the two previous ACT Surveys of Academic Advising. The analysis was undertaken to ascertain whether there were significant differences between and/or among the organizational models on goal achievement and program effectiveness.

Goal Achievement

In the ACT National Survey's (1987) sub-section on goal achievement, respondents were given the following instructions for rating the eight goals described below.

The following goals for advising programs have been established by the National Academic Advising Association (NACADA). Consider whether your current advising services are delivered/designed in such a way that these goals are successfully achieved for most students. Use the following scale to rate each goal.

1 - Does not apply; no services have been implemented to address this goal
2 - Achievement not very satisfactory
3 - Achievement somewhat satisfactory
4 - Achievement satisfactory
5 - Achievement very satisfactory

A —— Assisting students in self-understanding and self-acceptance (value clarification, understanding abilities, interests, and limitations)
B —— Assisting students in their consideration of life goals by relating interests, skills, abilities, and values to careers, the world of work, and the nature and purpose of higher education
C —— Assisting students in developing an educational plan consistent with life goals and objectives (alternative courses of action, alternate career considerations, and selection of courses)
D —— Assisting students in developing decision-making skills
E —— Providing accurate information about institutional policies, procedures, resources, and programs
F —— Making referrals to other institutional or community support services
G —— Assisting students in evaluation or reevaluation of progress toward established goals and educational plans
H —— Providing information about students to the institution, colleges, and/or academic departments

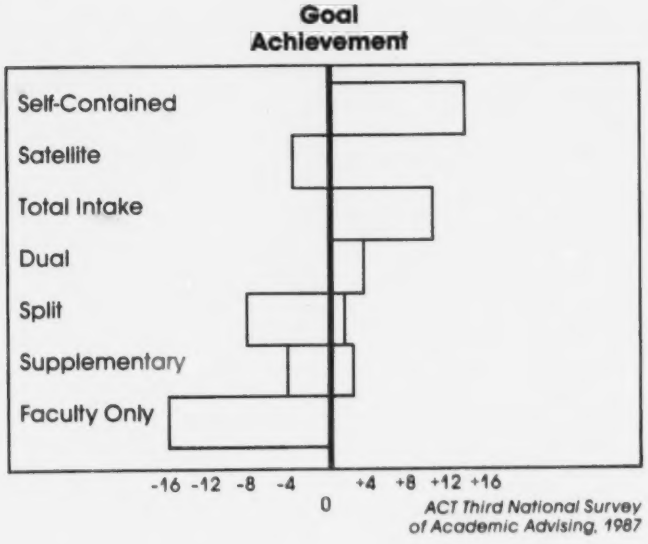
Table 1 provides an item analysis which identifies by goal the significant differences which were reported among the means for the models examined two at a time. If the table is read vertically, one can ascertain the goals by model for which a given model scored significantly lower than any of the other models. If the table is read horizontally, one can ascertain the model goals for which a given model scored significantly higher than any of the other models. For example, the Supplementary Model scored significantly lower than the Total Intake Model on goals A, B, and D, and significantly lower than the Self-Contained Model on goal C. The Supplementary Model scored significantly higher than the Faculty-Only Model on goals A and E.

Table 1

	FO	SUP	SPL	DU	TI	SAT	SC
Faculty-Only (FO)	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
Supplementary (SUP)	A,E	--	--	--	--	--	--
Split (SPL)	F	--	--	--	--	--	--
Dual (DU)	C,F	--	C	--	--	--	--
Total Intake (TI)	A,B,D	A,B,D	A,B,D	--	--	A,D	--
Satellite (SAT)	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
Self-Contained (SC)	All	C	A,B, C,D	--	--	D	--

A graphic summary of the significant differences among models by goal achievement is depicted in Table 2. This table is constructed to present both the total number of goals for which an organizational model achieved a significantly higher goal mean and the total number of items for which an organizational model received a significantly lower mean score than the other six models as measured by the Student-Newman-Kuhls test for significance of the means taken two at a time with a level of significance at .05.

Table 2



Using this form of analysis, the highest possible positive rating would be achieved if a given model scored significantly higher on ALL goals (8) than ALL other models (6). Thus a perfect positive score would be +48 (8x6). Conversely, the lowest possible rating (-48) would occur if a given model scored significantly lower on ALL goals (8) than ALL other models (6).

As Table 2 illustrates, both the Self-Contained (+14, 0) and the Total Intake (+11, 0) models clearly stand out as the models most positively viewed by respondents at institutions where those models are employed. Less pronounced, but nevertheless positive, is the Dual Model (+3, 0) with mixed views held on both the Supplementary (+2, -4) and the Split (+1, -8) models. The most negatively viewed models on goal achievement are the Satellite (0, -3) and the Faculty-Only (0, -16) models.

Program Effectiveness

In the sub-section on program effectiveness, respondents were given the following instructions for rating the 11 effectiveness variables described below.

Using a scale of 1 (very ineffective) to 5 (very effective), rate the overall effectiveness of your institution's advising program on each of the following variables. Please make certain that you provide only one rating for the entire advising program.

1	2	3	4	5
Very Ineffective				Very Effective

A —— Providing for the advising needs of your students
B —— Providing advisors who are willing to participate in advising, have at least the basic skills necessary for advising, and have the time necessary to do an effective job of advising
C —— Identifying and selecting individuals to participate in advising
D —— Providing advisors with timely and accurate information on their advisees
E —— Providing for communication among and between deans, department heads, advisors, and the coordinator of advising, if such a position exists
F —— Implementing a training program for advisors
G —— Providing advisor accountability, both to a higher level of authority and to advisees
H —— Providing appropriate levels of coordination, direction, and supervision
I —— Systematically evaluating both the advising program and advisors

J —— Recognizing/rewarding quality advising
K —— Meeting student needs when combined with the expenditure of human and fiscal resources

An item analysis is provided in Table 3 which identifies, by effectiveness variables, the significant differences reported by item among the models. If the table is read vertically, one can ascertain the effectiveness variables by model on which a given model scored significantly lower than any of the other models. If the table is read horizontally, one can discover, by model, the effectiveness variables for which a given model scored significantly higher than any of the other models. For example, the Supplementary Model rated significantly lower than the Dual Model on variable G, the Total Intake Model on variable I, and the Self-Contained Model on variables G, I, and J. The Supplementary Model scored significantly higher than the Faculty-Only Model on variables A, B, C, H, and K; the Split Model on variables A, C, H, and J; and the Satellite Model on variable B.

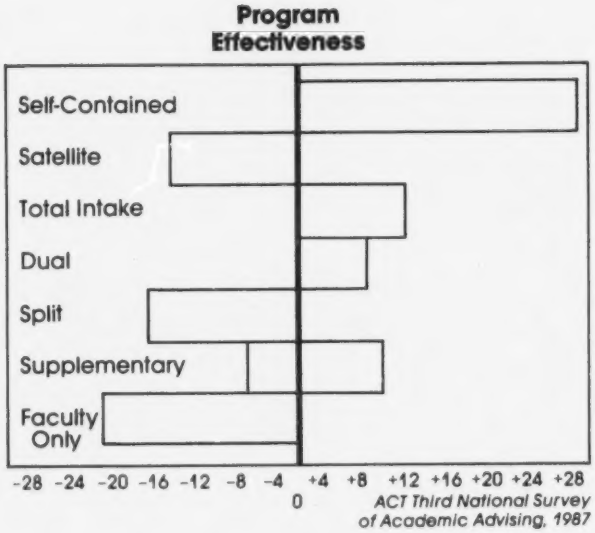
Table 3

Significant Differences
Program Effectiveness

	FO	SUP	SPL	DU	TI	SAT	SC
Faculty-Only (FO)	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
Supplementary (SUP)	A,B,C, H,K	--	A,C, H,J	--	--	B	--
Split (SPL)	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
Dual (DU)	B,G,H,	G	G,H	--	--	B,H	--
Total Intake (TI)	B,H, I,J	I	I,J	--	--	B,H, I,J	--
Satellite (SAT)	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
Self-Contained (SC)	A,B,C, F,G,H, I,J,K	G,I,J	A,B,C, F,G,H, I,J,K	--	--	B,C,G, H,I,J, K	--

A graphic summary of the significant differences among models on effectiveness variables is depicted in Table 4. This table is constructed to present both the total number of effectiveness items for which an organizational model received significantly higher means and the total number of items for which an organizational model received significantly lower means than the other six models.

Table 4



Using this form of analysis. the highest possible positive rating would be achieved if a given model scored significantly higher on ALL effectiveness items (11) than ALL other models (6). Thus, a perfect positive rating would be +66 (11x6). Conversely, the lowest possible rating (-66) would occur if a given model scored significantly lower on ALL effectiveness items (11) than ALL other models (6).

As Table 4 indicates, the most positive effectiveness rating was reported by institutions utilizing the Self-Contained Model. The program effectiveness means were significantly higher than the other models on 28 occasions, and significantly lower on no occasions. Both the Total Intake (+11, 0) and the Dual (+8,0) were also perceived positively in comparative effectiveness with the other models. The only mixed response was from respondents at institutions which employed the Supplementary Model (+10, -5). Negative comparisons on program effectiveness were received for the Satellite (0, -14), the Split (0, -17), and the Faculty-Only (0, -21) models.

Change in Program Effectiveness

Finally, utilizing the same 11 effectiveness variables, respondents were asked to assess the degree to which the effectiveness of a particular factor had changed during the last five years by circling the appropriate response from those listed below.

1	2	3	4	5
Much Less Effective	Less Effective	No Change	More Effective	Much More Effective

An item analysis is provided in Table 5 which identifies by change ratings, significant differences among the models. Table 5 can be interpreted in the same manner as Tables 1 and 3.

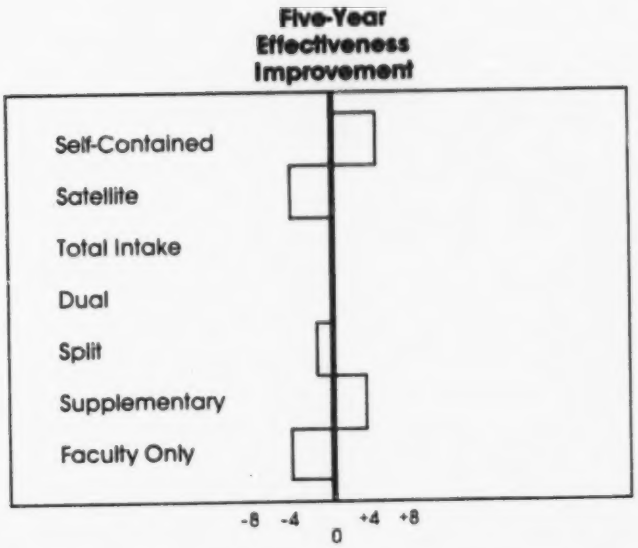
Table 5

Change in Program Effectiveness

	FO	SUP	SPL	DU	TI	SAT	SC
Faculty-Only (FO)	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
Supplementary (SUP)	A,H	--		--	--	A	--
Split (SPL)	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
Dual (DU)	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
Total Intake (TI)	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
Satellite (SAT)	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
Self-Contained (SC)	H	--	G	--	--	H,I,	--

A graphic summary of the significant differences among the models on five-year change in effectiveness variables is depicted in Table 6. This table is constructed to present by model, both the total number of significantly higher and significantly lower mean scores among all models.

Table 6



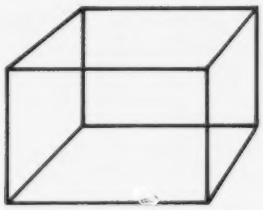
Interpretation of Table 6 is similar to Table 4 where the highest possible rating would be +66 and the lowest possible rating a -66.

As Table 6 depicts, there appears to be no pronounced trend among the models as to which one was more/less likely to have led to change. Both the Self-Contained (+4, 0) and the Supplementary (+3,0) models are mildly positive when each is compared with the other six models. For both the Total Intake and the Dual Models neither positive nor negative significant differences were found. The Satellite (0, -3), the Faculty-Only (0, -3), and the Split (0, -1) models were mildly negative when each was compared with the other six models.

It should be underscored here that respondent means for all models indicate increased effectiveness, albeit miniscule, on each of the 11 variables (see Chapter 2, Table 46). The comparisons reported in Tables 5 and 6 represent significant differences only for variable means compared two at a time and not for significant change in variables over the past five years.

Conclusion

Discussion of the data presented in this chapter elicits a true dilemma of perspective which is best illustrated through use of the figure below.



If one stares at the figure for four or five seconds he/she discovers not only that the background and foreground are interchangeable, but also that the figure appears to move as perspective changes. By word of caution, then, if the reader gives only cursory consideration to the data presented in this chapter he/she is likely to come to several face value and simplistic conclusions about organizational models for academic advising programs. The most obvious but probably erroneous interpretation is that the Self-Contained Model is the single most effective organizational model for an academic advising program. Another superficial conclusion is that the Faculty-Only Model is the least effective model for an academic advising program, a contention which is repeatedly heard among full-time professional advisors.

Yet, the diversity among institutions when coupled with the broad scope of the advising function, does not allow for such hasty conclusions. The data requires closer scrutiny, a scrutiny which refutes a fixation on the one best way to organize advising programs.

In reality, the organization of an effective advising program requires the fullest consideration of all facets of the institution and the extent to which those facets are orchestrated to meet student needs. The critical fact is that the self-contained model seems to be effective within the context of the individual institution in which it is deployed. And, it is the examination of that context which should guide institutions in the selection and implementation of an advising model.

The context is derived from four major sets of characteristics. The first set of characteristics relates to institutional mission which includes locus of control, level of degree offerings, program mix, selectivity, and size of enrollment. As an example, advising services should be organized differently at a public, two-year, open door, vocational/technical institution then at a private, four-year, highly selective, liberal arts university. The basic character and mission of the institution should be weighed heavily in the selection of an organizational model.

The second major set of characteristics applies to the student. Listed below are some of the student characteristics which have an impact on the organization of advising services.

Underprepared	Gifted
Undecided	Decided
Socioeconomic Diversity	Socioeconomic Homogeneity
First Generation College	College Educated Parents
Commuter	Resident
Nontraditional	Traditional

There are at least two dimensions related to these characteristics which deserve discussion. First, the extent to which a given descriptor characterizes the student body tells us something about the way in which services should be organized. As an example, if a large percentage of students on campus are enrolled in one or more remedial or developmental courses, a more centralized and intrusive advising organization is warranted.

Second, the mix of student characteristics also tells us something about the way in which advising services should be organized. An institution whose student mix is characterized primarily by descriptors in the left-hand column should organize advising services differently than an institution whose student mix is characterized primarily by the descriptors in the right-hand column.

The third major set of characteristics relate to the faculty role in academic advising. Faculty must play a role in advising. The extent of that role may, however, be the most complex issue in the organization of advising services. This complexity can be illustrated through asking four major questions.

1) How willing are faculty to serve as advisors?

2) Do faculty members have, or are they willing to develop, the skills necessary to function as advisors?

3) To what extent are faculty constrained by other role expectations?

4) To what extent is academic advising evaluated and rewarded?

Although each of these questions could provide the focus for extended discussion, the more positive the answers, the more involved faculty should be in the delivery of advising services. Negative responses to such questions should not, however, lead to the exclusion of faculty from the advising process. Rather such responses should lead to the development of strategies for enhancing their willingness and skills, reducing the constraints upon them, and providing workable evaluation and significant reward programs.

The fourth set of characteristics deals with the complexity of institutional procedures and policies.

1) How sequential are academic programs?

2) How complex are the requirements for graduation?

3) How critical are initial course placement decisions?

4) What is the scope of the general education program?

5) How broad is the latitude of choice in general education and elective courses?

6) To what degree should advisors approve academic transactions such as course registration, changes of registration, etc.?

Each of these factors must be included in the consideration of the organization of advising services on the campus. In general, as complexity increases, the necessity for highly skilled advisors working in a well-defined advising organization also increases.

In this chapter, data from The Third ACT National Survey of Academic Advising was analyzed to compare the perceived goal achievement, effectiveness, and change in effectiveness of seven organizational models. It must be repeated that the research was not intended to identify the best organizational model for advising services. Rather, it was intended to accomplish two things. First, it was intended to assist administrators in the process of reorganizing current advising services by identifying alternative models and by analyzing distinctions between and among those models. The second purpose of the research was to assist campuses working with a given model in assessing strengths and weaknesses as a prelude to developing strategies for change within that given organizational model. In that light, ensuing chapters of this monograph are intended to provide the reader with a more thorough examination of those issues and the strategies which lead to their effective resolution.

CHAPTER 6

Advising Delivery Systems

Margaret C. King

This chapter focuses on who provides advising services for students rather than on how the services are organized. While in some cases the decision to employ a specific organizational model as described in the preceeding chapter, will dictate who delivers advising services (e.g. the faculty-only model), in most situations the model selected may involve several delivery systems. The most common of these are faculty advisors, professional advisors, counselors, peer advisors and paraprofessional advisors. In addition, many institutions enhance their primary delivery systems through computer-assisted advising and a freshman seminar course.

What are some of the factors that influence the choice of a delivery system? Hines (1984) identifies five: (1) characteristics of the students; (2) the advisors (who is available to provide the service); (3) the organizational structure of academic advising; (4) the budget; and (5) the facilities. Crockett (1985, 1986) expands the list. He believes institutions need to identify and/or define (1) the advising needs of students; (2) the person or unit responsible for advising services as determined by the organizational structure of the institution; (3) the desired outcomes of advising - whether they be information giving or a developmental process; (4) the available resources; (5) the impact of collective bargaining or faculty contract agreements; and (6) the desired ratio of advisees to advisor. Once these questions are resolved, the decision to use one or more of the above-mentioned delivery systems will be more easily made.

This chapter will define each of the delivery systems and discuss the strengths and weaknesses of each with regard to the following criteria: (1) access/availability to students; (2) priority placed on academic advising; (3) knowledge of the major field of study; (4) knowledge of student development theory; (5) training required; (6) cost; and (7) credibility with faculty and staff. Where appropriate, reference will be made to the results of The Third ACT National Survey of Academic Advising (Habley, Crockett, and Cowart, 1987).

Faculty Advisors

Full-time teaching faculty continue to be the primary group providing academic advising for students. Of the institutions responding to the 1987 ACT Survey of Academic Advising, 53 percent indicated that faculty had the sole responsibility for the delivery of advising services on their campuses. Thirty-three percent of those institutions utilize faculty within the faculty-only organizational model. Of institutions that have an advising office as part of their organizational model, 60 percent use faculty in some way to staff that office. More that 48 percent of the surveyed institutions where advising occurred in academic departments require all faculty to advise. Among those institutions where all faculty are not required to advise, voluntary participation of faculty is most likely to occur in four-year public institutions, while the use of some selection criteria for faculty advisors is most apt to occur in the four-year private setting. In two-year colleges advising is most likely to be required for all faculty.

The access/availability of faculty advisors has frequently been a concern of students (Gnepp, Keating and Masters, 1980; McKinney and Hartwig, 1981). This is not surprising, particularly in institutions where all faculty are required to advise. Advising must compete with institutional demands for quality teaching, for the development of new courses and programs, for research and for publication--all of which generally have a much higher priority when it comes to institutional recognition and reward (Spencer, Peterson and Kramer, 1982). Also, the advising loads of faculty are frequently heavy. While only 2.5 percent of the institutions responding to the 1987 ACT survey indicated that all of their faculty have advising loads of more than 40 advisees, 52.4 percent indicated that some of their faculty do. Consequently, it is not surprising that the survey results indicate that the mode for faculty time spent in advising is between one and five percent, and that most faculty have contact with their advisees only two times or less per academic term. Access/availability is much less of an issue in institutions where faculty advisors are selected and not required to advise, are given released time to advise, and are given recognition for quality advising.

For the reasons mentioned above, academic advising is often given a low priority by faculty advisors. As Teague and Grites (1980, p. 40) note, faculty often regard advising as "purely administrative, trivial, and not at all contributing toward their professional growth, salary increments, promotions in rank, or tenure decisions. Advising is a time consuming activity and the faculty member regards this time as better used in committee work, making improvements in instruction, doing research, and publishing, so advising tends to be neglected, hurried or simply not done."

Knowledge of advising issues related to their discipline is, however, a major strength of faculty advisors (Crockett, 1985; Landry, 1981; Larsen and Brown, 1983; Teague, 1977). Faculty advisors can generally provide detailed information about courses and programs in their department, can provide the rationale for course/program requirements, and are knowledgeable about educational and career opportunities related to their field.

Knowledge of student development theory, so important for quality academic advising, is frequently an area of weakness for faculty advisors. Consequently, they sometimes may be less helpful to students when dealing with advising issues related to personal and career development. They are also often less knowledgeable than other types of advisors about other campus resources, and therefore less effective in referring students to those resources.

The argument for training faculty advisors is based on the assumption that quality advising involves more than simply selecting and scheduling courses. Indeed, advising is a complex process which has been defined by Crockett (1978) as follows: "Academic advising assists students to realize the maximum educational benefits available to them by helping them to better understand themselves and to learn to use the resources of the institution to meet their special educational needs." Because few, if any, faculty have, by virtue of their education in their discipline and their credentialing, received training in the skills necessary to deliver quality advising, it is the author's contention that the amount of training needed by faculty advisors is high. Yet, the amount they actually receive is minimal. According to the ACT survey, only 26 percent of the institutions surveyed have a mandatory training program in their academic departments. Where training programs exist, they generally consist of a one-day workshop rather than an ongoing program or one tailored to specific advisor needs. They also generally focus on informational skills (the things an advisor must know) to the exclusion of conceptual skills (ideas advisors must understand) and relational skills (behaviors an advisor must exhibit).

On the final two criteria--cost and institutional credibility with faculty and staff--faculty advisors score high. Where advising is a mandated responsibility for all faculty, there is no additional monetary cost, as advising is viewed as part of the teaching function. And because of their rank as faculty, the credibility of faculty advisors with other faculty and staff within the institution is generally high.

One additional strength of a faculty advising delivery system deserves to be mentioned, and that is the demonstrated positive impact of student-faculty informal interaction on student growth and retention (Terenzini and Pascarella, 1980). Faculty advising is one effective way of promoting that interaction.

In summary, if faculty are selected to deliver advising services, only those faculty who are interested in, and capable of, providing effective advising for students should be selected. Faculty advisors should be given released time to advise; they should receive ongoing training that focuses on conceptual, informational and relational skills; and they should receive appropriate recognition and reward for services performed well.

Professional Advisors

The most common delivery system after faculty advisors is the use of professional advisors, advisors with appropriate credentials whose roles focus primarily on providing academic and support services for students. Of the 60 percent of institutions surveyed that have an advising office, 66 percent are staffed with full-time advisors. Full-time advisors are used more in public institutions than in private ones.

Professional advisors score high in regard to access/availability to students. They are generally housed in a central location, spend a full day in their offices, and devote the majority of their time to providing academic advising for students. In addition, they are generally hired on the basis of their interest in and ability to work with students in an advising capacity. In other words, advising is their priority. Provided they have reasonable advising loads, they are easily accessible and have more opportunity to be proactive with their advisees, initiating regular contact and follow-up.

Advisee load, however, can be a major difficulty for professional advisors. It is fortunate that of the institutions that use professional advisors that responded to the ACT survey, more than 70 percent indicated that their advisor loads fell within the generally accepted ratio of 300 to 1. However, 30 percent of the institutions exceeded that ratio and, of that group, 6 percent actually had double that number of advisees per advisor. In those institutions, advisor access/availability would be limited.

Professional advisors generally do not possess the in-depth knowledge of courses, programs and educational and career opportunities in a given discipline that a faculty advisor would have. However, they are generally more knowledgeable about the broad range of programs of study available and therefore can be particularly effective with undecided students or those exploring other program options. Professional advisors are usually program neutral. That is, they may be less biased toward a particular program than faculty members might be, and are less likely to try to influence students to select particular programs or courses. If biases are minimized, the focus of advising is clearly on the student.

Knowledge of student development theory gained from their prior education and training is generally a strength of the professional advisor. As a result, professional advisors can be particularly helpful to their advisees in coping with issues related to personal and career development. They also are generally knowledgeable about other services available to students, both on and off campus, and are likely to possess good referral skills. Consequently, when their advisees need assistance beyond their capabilities, they can serve as referral agents for the student.

The training needs of the professional advisor may be high initially, but less pressing over time. Surprisingly, of the institutions surveyed by ACT that had an

advising office, only 40 percent provide any kind of mandatory training. In 33 percent of those institutions, training consists of a single workshop while in 42 percent, training consists of a series of short workshops throughout the year. As with faculty advisor training, informational skills were the most prevalent training topic, followed by conceptual skills and relational skills.

The type and length of training needed varies depending on the background of the professional advisor. For someone with a background in counseling and student development initial training focusing on informational skills would be the priority, with an update needed as new courses, programs, policies and procedures are introduced to the campus. Because the professional advisor is working with advising issues daily, formal on-going training may be less important than it is for faculty advisors. Opportunities for professional staff development, however, should always be made available.

The direct cost of using professional advisors is high because an institution is hiring special staff members to perform the advising function as opposed to utilizing faculty who are already there. However, this may be balanced by the benefits of having advisors who are interested in and accessible to students. One problem is that because many professional advisors do not hold faculty rank, they may not hold the respect or credibility accorded to faculty on their campus. Consequently, institutions utilizing professional advisors need to focus on ways to increase that credibility.

In summary, for an effective delivery system using professional advisors priority must be placed on thorough initial training, a reasonable advising load, and on-going interaction with faculty. Under such circumstances, professional advisors can be very beneficial to a comprehensive advising delivery system.

Counselors

Counselors are used as academic advisors, particularly on two-year college campuses. Of the two-year college respondents to the ACT survey, 34 percent named the Director of Counseling as the person responsible for coordinating academic advising.

The strengths and weaknesses of using counselors to deliver advising services are very similar to those associated with professional advisors. However, there is one additional limitation. Often professional counselors are more interested in providing psychological counseling services and view counseling as being much more important than advising (Crockett, 1985); consequently, advising may be given a lower priority among the variety of tasks counselors are asked to perform.

Peer Advisors

According to the ACT survey, slightly more than 12 percent of the institutions having an advising office in their organizational structure make use of peer advisors as part of their advising delivery system. While students have traditionally been used as tutors and to assist staff in residence halls and with orientation programs, institutions are now finding that students can be very effective as peer advisors as well (Barman and Benson, 1981; Brown and Myers, 1975; Frisz and Lane, 1987; Gnepp, Keating and Masters, 1980; Jennings, 1978; Murry, 1972; and Zunker, 1975). Habley (1978), in a summary of the research, noted that students rated peer advisors higher than faculty advisors on interpersonal dimensions of the advising relationship, and as being equally as effective as faculty advisors both in providing information and in the student's personal satisfaction with the advisor. Habley also noted that peer advisors are accepted more readily by students and that they can contribute to significantly lower attrition rates.

Peer advisors rate highly in terms of access/availability to students. Their hours are flexible, making them available at times when students need them most. In addition, they can advise students in a variety of locations ranging from the advising office to the residence hall.

While advising is generally a priority for the peer advisor, there may be difficulty balancing the advisor role and the student role. Students may also lack objectivity regarding professors and courses.

Except in a limited experiential framework, peer advisors will have neither the knowledge of courses and programs attributed to faculty and professional advisors nor the knowledge of student development theory attributed to professional advisors. Consequently, for a peer advisor program to be successful, special attention must be devoted to the selection, training and on-going supervision of advisors. In regard to training, peers may best be trained as specialists in one particular area rather than as generalists.

Cost is a key benefit of a peer advisor program. The salaries can be low and the use of peer advisors frees professional advisors to do more in-depth advising. Peer advisors also tend to increase student use of advising services. Students feel more comfortable with them. Peer advisors can identify with the students they advise and are better able to recognize problems and, therefore, recommend changes. They also bring an enthusiasm to the job.

On the negative side, an effective peer advising program requires significant professional staff time for training, supervision and evaluation. And, there is a lack of continuity because of graduation. Peers may also not be as accountable, as many of them will have graduated by the time problems materialize for their advisees.

In summary, for a peer advising program to be effective, special attention must be given to advisor selection, training, supervision and evaluation. If such attention is carefully provided, peer advisors can be a very valuable supplement to an advising delivery system.

Paraprofessional Advisors

According to the ACT survey, almost 13 percent of those institutions having an advising office make use of paraprofessionals to supplement their advising system. Paraprofessionals are not students, but are generally people with at least an associate degree who have an interest in working with students. In one model (King, 1979), paraprofessionals include retired persons, homemakers, faculty spouses and evening advisors employed in a different field during the day. Alumni have also been used (Kerr, 1983).

The advantages and disadvantages of a paraprofessional advising system are similar to those for peer advisors. Paraprofessionals are accessible, they are economical, they are enthusiastic and committed, and using them frees up the professional advisor to do more in-depth advising with students who need it. In addition, advising is their priority and generally, there is continuity. However, paraprofessionals also require significant amounts of staff time for selection, training and supervision, and they generally cannot provide the full range of services available in a comprehensive program. Consequently, paraprofessionals, like peers, are most effective when used in conjunction with a faculty or professional advising delivery system, rather than as the sole delivery method.

Advising Delivery System Matrix

The following matrix summarizes the strengths and weaknesses of each advising delivery system based on the criteria set forth at the beginning of this chapter.

Advising Delivery System Matrix

Strengths and Weaknesses

Delivery System	Access/Availability to Students	Priority Placed on Advising	Knowledge Re: Academic Discipline	Knowledge of Student Development	Need for Required Training	Cost to Institution	Credibility with Faculty/Staff
Faculty	Low	Low	High	Low	High	Low	High
Professional Advisor	High	High	Average	High	Average	High	Low
Counselor	Average	Average	Average	High	Average	High	Average
Peer	High	Average	Low	Low	High	Low	Average
Para-Professional	High	High	Average	Average	High	Low	Average

Additional Aspects of Delivery Systems

Computer Assisted Advising

Computer assisted advising is defined by Spencer, Peterson and Kramer (1983 p. 513) as "a computer program that stores and matches degree requirements and students' academic records. The records produced are evaluative reports that show graduation requirements and each student's progress in completing those requirements." Computer assisted advising is becoming widely used as a very efficient and effective support service for academic advisors. Among the benefits are cost, the provision of more accurate information in less time, and the freedom it provides advisors from many of the clerical functions of advising (Bellenger and Bellenger, 1987; Spencer, Peterson, and Kramer, 1988).

Computer assisted advising cannot replace the interpersonal aspects of advising, particularly those focusing on educational and career planning. In addition, the initial development of such a system can be time consuming and expensive. However, as a supplement to an existing advising program, its benefits are many.

Freshman Seminar Course

The freshman seminar or orientation course has gained widespread popularity over the last five years, particularly since the development of the University 101 course at the University of South Carolina. The issues of who should teach the course, whether or not it should be credit bearing, the length of time it should run, the makeup of the specific course content, and whether it should be mandatory or optional for entering students must be determined based on individual campus needs and resources. However the course is structured, it is generally designed to achieve the following goals: (1) to help integrate students into their new environment; (2) to help students clarify why they're in college and to establish realistic career and life goals; (3) to help students obtain information about their academic program, courses, etc.; (4) to help students develop or improve their study and time management skills; and (5) to make students more familiar with college policy and procedure and with the resources and services available (Gordon and Grites, 1984).

Conclusion

Although the reader may take issue with the author's assessment of the strengths and weaknesses of each of the delivery systems, the important message of this chapter is that each of the delivery systems is different: each system has advantages and disadvantages, and most importantly, each system can be effective if administrative strategies are designed to accentuate the advantages and mediate the disadvantages within the context of the institutional environment. In reality, the ideal advising delivery system would include some combination of the delivery systems discussed in this chapter. However, whether only one delivery system or a combination of systems is used, we can conclude that to be effective an advising delivery system must include the components identified by Winston, Miller, Ender, and Grites (1984, p. 24): "Academic advising should be offered only by personnel who voluntarily choose to advise, who receive systematic skills training, who have advising as a specific responsibility, whose performance is systematically evaluated, and who are rewarded for skillful performance."

CHAPTER 7

Advisor Training

Michael C. Keller

Advisor training as an effective component of campus advising programs has not received favorable ratings on ACT's National Survey of Academic Advising. Crockett and Levitz (1983) cited expanded training program/activities as the second most important need of respondents. Crockett, Habley and Cowart (1987) report that the most recent survey results show little improvement over the earlier surveys. Advisor training came in 9th overall out of 11 variables on the "Effectiveness of Campus Advising Programs" rating (Table 45)* and was seen as one of the "least effective dimensions of advising programs across all institutions".

More specifically, the results show that strategies for faculty selection and participation in the advising process are either nonexistent or poorly conceived and delivered. Voluntary participation, one of the current themes in the advising literature, does not exist at all for 60.2 percent of the total group, and the use of selection criteria for participation of faculty does not exist at all for 67.9 percent of the campuses reported in this survey (Table 14). Moreover, most institutions provide very few required training programs to help those faculty who do advise. While faculty are required to advise in ALL (48.4 percent) or SOME (36.6 percent) of the departments (Table 14) nearly one-half (44.6 percent) of all institutions reported that there was no mandatory training in any of the academic departments (Table 20).

Much the same picture is painted when analyzing the results of advisor training within offices where one might assume that training programs would be a common practice. Yet, the data show that nearly 60 percent of institutions surveyed either have no training program in their advising offices or do not mandate participation in the training programs they have developed (Table 39). Where training programs exist, the most common format for training advisors in all institutions (30%) is the workshop of one day or less (Table 21). Only about a quarter of the institutions conduct regularly scheduled in-service workshops during the year.

* Unless otherwise noted, tables and table numbers cited in this chapter are taken from Chapter 2 of this monograph.

This data provides convincing support that institutional recognition of the faculty's need for specialized training in advising skills and techniques is still not characteristic of higher education today. In the light of these findings, this chapter will examine the basic elements necessary for developing an effective advisor training program. After demonstrating the need for programs which incorporate developmental principles and highlighting some of the key ingredients of such programs, the author will present a model which provides specific strategies to assist advisors with implementing developmental-oriented goals. The chapter concludes with an overview of some proven advisor training strategies.

It has been difficult for the concept of advisor training to gain much acceptance on college campuses because advisors often hold the view that they don't need training. The premise is quite simple--either you can advise or you can't; since it is that easy, most people can be good advisors with no training at all. It is precisely because of this attitude that training in areas other than program choice and course selection has often been perceived by administrators as a low priority (Carstensen and Silberhorn, 1979). This is unfortunate since the literature suggests that well-planned and properly presented pre-service and in-service training sessions improve academic advising and result in more positive student attitudes, enhanced self-concept, and intellectual and interpersonal development.

Advisor Role

Training programs that enhance an advisor's developmental perspective will become even more essential as advising becomes more student-centered, a trend which is gaining currency in the literature and one which has the potential to improve many college advising programs. As Gordon (1984, p. 442) has so aptly stated: "An important component of any training program is a philosophy that views advising in a student development framework. This philosophy can provide direction and continuity to all advising efforts. This advising philosophy encompasses the whole student and is based on an understanding of how students develop--personally and socially as well as intellectually". Grites (1979, p.1) underscores this same premise while stating that "academic advising in American higher education has evolved from a routine, isolated, single-purpose, faculty activity to a comprehensive process of academic, career and personal development performed by personnel from most elements of the campus community".

Advisor training programs have not kept pace with this developmental view of academic advising. Criticism has been directed with increasing frequency toward colleges which simply do not give sufficient attention to providing students with an integrated student development program. While this criticism may be overstated, it does point out that college students, both traditional and non-traditional, require competent assistance in clarifying their personal, life and career goals and in analyzing their abilities, interests and values as they affect those decisions. The convergence of career/life planning with curricular planning is that crucial point at which a student most needs an academic advisor.

Unfortunately, few students can avail themselves of the professional assistance of a skilled counselor. Many obtain only casual guidance from faculty who simply do not have the time, knowledge or skills that are required to help students in this vitally important decision-making process. Yet faculty are perceived by students as the most often used resource for life/career planning. To assist faculty in this process, an effective method for responding directly and systematically to the academic, personal, and career development needs of students is needed. This can best be achieved through a broad and well coordinated advisor training program which prepares the advisor to facilitate the student's developmental needs.

The faculty advisor is in a unique position to play such a role. In the best sense, academic advising is individualized instruction. The faculty advisor:

1. helps students define and develop realistic goals in keeping with their abilities and interests;

2. helps students understand the nature and purpose of a liberal education through an interpretation of all requirements for graduation;

3. helps students recognize the relevance of a particular course in developing either a breadth of understanding and appreciation for scholarship in various disciplines or in acquiring the facility for the rigorous study necessary in a given major field;

4. helps students in academic difficulty recognize possible causes of their difficulty and suggests alternative courses of action;

5. encourages superior students to take advantage of special educational opportunities;

6. makes the proper referrals when such a need is indicated directly or indirectly.

In fulfilling this responsibility, the faculty advisor develops an added dimension to his or her role as a teacher.

This concept of faculty advising as teaching receives its best treatment in an article by Crookston (1972). Crookston points out that advising can be either prescriptive or developmental and defines the role of the academic advisor for each of these modes. In the developmental model, the academic advisor is an instructor, growth facilitator, resource person and friend. In this model "developmental counseling or advising is concerned not only with a specific personal or vocational decision but also with facilitating the student's rational processes, environmental and interpersonal interactions, behavioral awareness, and problem-solving, decision-making, and evaluation skills" (p. 12). The central notion here is understanding developmental academic advising and its role and relationship to other areas of student development.

The first formal academic advising model to address this issue was O'Banion's (1972). This model suggested that advising become a logical, integrated sequence of events. O'Banion's five-step advising model includes (1) exploration of life goals, (2) exploration of career goals, (3) selection of a major or program of study, (4) selection of courses, and (5) scheduling of classes. O'Banion elaborated on this model in a keynote speech at the 11th National Conference on Academic Advising in Chicago in October of 1987, referring to the model as a "Process Paradigm for Academic Advisement." The model as it now stands comes closest to including those goals which have come to be associated with developmental academic advising.

Developmental academic advising as a student support service is accompanied by attitudinal changes toward advising stimulated by student concerns for more interpersonal relationships, by the need for better academic planning, and by the need for more comprehensive and personal support services. In defining this new role, Grites (1981, p. 2) states that "academic advising is now described as a decision-making process during which students realize their maximum educational potential through communication and information exchanges with an adviser. It is on-going, multifaceted, and the responsibility of both student and adviser. The adviser serves as a facilitator of communication, a coordinator of learning experiences and referral agent."

Framework For Advisor Training

Given the developmental definition of advising, each institution must select the training system or combination of systems most appropriate for meeting the needs of its student body. Advisor training based on this developmental model will offer knowledge and skill acquisition from a student-centered perspective as well as recognize that there are additional demands placed on faculty advisors.

A number of authors have presented strategies for developing training programs for academic advisors (Gordon, 1984; Grites, 1978; Winston and Ender, 1982). Grites (1978, p. 140) suggests the following general objectives for a typical advisor training program: "(1) to provide advisors with accurate and timely information about the policies, procedures and processes which affect the advising relationship; (2) to provide advisors with additional skills often required in their advising responsibilities; (3) to increase student satisfaction with advising; (4) to increase advisor satisfaction with advising; and (5) to develop a comprehensive approach to academic planning as part of the total advising process." In addition to Grites' objectives there are, on occasion, other training objectives such as helping to motivate faculty to become better advisors, stimulating faculty who are unmotivated, and enhancing the credibility of the advising services and advising staff.

These broad program objectives need to be condensed and delivered in a concise and integrated format. While there are a number of ways to do this, in the ACT

National Center's Conference on Academic Advising, Habley and Crockett (1987) identify the major considerations in the development of advisor training programs:

Content Factors

- Conceptual
- Relational
- Informational

Audience Factors

- Skill Level
- Experience
- Willingness to participate

Habley and Crockett's contention is that quality advisor training programs result from the integration of these considerations.

Content

The content factors also form the framework for gathering data on advisor training through the ACT Third National Survey of Academic Advising. While the results of the National Surveys show that advisor training programs in general are successful in dispensing information, they remain weak in both the conceptual and relational areas. One reason for this, as one might expect, is that training programs for advisors are heavily oriented toward the informational aspects of the role. Carstensen and Silberhorn (1979) found that those responsible for the delivery of advising services perceived their primary function to be information dissemination to students, course selection and class scheduling. And, the 1987 Survey indicates that regulations, policies and procedures are included in training at 66.1 percent of the institutions surveyed (Table 22). Within advising centers, information skills were clearly the most prevalent among the topics included in training. Crockett and Habley (1987, p. 5) report that "a comparison with the results of the 1983 survey indicates that providing accurate information was the highest ranked goal on both surveys and the following conceptual and relational goals were ranked lowest on both surveys: (1) assisting students in their consideration of life goals by relating interests, skills, abilities and values to careers, the world of work, and the nature and purpose of higher education; (2) assisting students in self-understanding abilities, interests, limitations; (3) assisting students in developing decision-making skills."

Only one-third of the campuses included career and employment information in their training activities (Table 41). Counseling, interviewing, and decision-making skills are included in the training programs of all departments in only 20 percent or less of the institutions surveyed (Table 22). The same situation exists for advising centers with little emphasis on relational skills training across all institutions. Only the inclusion of counseling skills was mentioned by more than one-third of the respondents, and the development of decision-making skills was included in a mere 16.5 percent (Table 41).

This data parallels data from the normative report on ACT's Survey of Academic Advising, an assessment instrument developed to measure student opinions of academic advising. As Julie Noble points out in Chapter 3 of this monograph, students were asked to rate their satisfaction with topics discussed (or not discussed) with their advisors:

> For all institutions, the topic students most often discussed with their advisor was Scheduling/registration (80 percent), followed by My Academic Progress (63 percent), Dropping/adding courses (56 percent), and Meeting requirements for graduation (56 percent). The topics the students most frequently had not discussed with their advisor, but felt they should have, included Finding a job after college/job placement (33 percent), Identifying careers that fit my abilities (33 percent), Matching my learning style to courses (29 percent), Continuing my education after graduation (26 percent), and Clarifying my life/career goals (25 percent).

These results clearly show that little emphasis has been given to developmental oriented goals in advising programs. As Habley and Crockett point out in Chapter 2 of this volume, the summary data on advising goals and program effectiveness in the 1987 survey indicate that "the concept of developmental advising appears to be now more widely embraced today than it was in the early '80s...The data from this representative sample of colleges and universities indicates that developmental advising is still more prominent in theory than it is in practice." The lowest ranked goals on both surveys were the more developmental-oriented goals of assisting students in consideration of life goals, self-understanding, and decision-making skills (Table 44).

When discussing content for advisor training programs, then, it is appropriate to begin with an examination of conceptual elements: *What should advisors understand?* As this chapter has pointed out, advisors need to understand the definition of developmental advising, the relationship between advising and other student support services, student expectations of advisors, and the rights and responsibilities of advisors and advisees.

The most critical step in understanding the developmental perspective on advising is understanding what advising is not. Advising is not a function in which the advisor passively confirms the efficacy of the student's plans, provides information, and raises questions about choices. Certainly, the academic advisor

should provide the advisee with basic information or refer the advisee to other sources. But focusing the definition of advisor primarily on the provision of information dilutes much more important functions.

Similarly, the advisor should not be defined as an aide for course selection and scheduling. Often this is what the student is seeking when initial contact is established, but it certainly should not dominate the relationship. Indeed, the advisor role should not even be thought to be limited to advice concerning academic responsibilities. At the very least the fulfillment of such responsibilities is contingent upon many "non-academic" factors: career plans, interpersonal relationships, family concerns, etc.

The second area of content for advisor training programs should include relational elements: *What should advisors do? How should they behave?* Included under this heading would be such topics as interview skills and communication skills. Grites (1980) has elaborated on a number of these points. In providing direction for faculty attempting to improve their advising skills without the benefit of a formal program, he includes three categories of advising skills--informing, communicating, and helping--and provides a brief summary of a number of useful techniques.

The final content area, in addition to addressing conceptual and relational elements, addresses the question: *What should advisors know?* Among the many items, let us highlight programs, policies, procedures, referral services and student information services. Also included in this category would be support tools and resources such as a college catalog, advising handbook, computerized advisee records, the ACT Student Profile Report, academic planning worksheets, the schedule of classes and the advising conference record.

Audience

In addition to *content*, a training program must consider *the audience*. Three factors to consider when planning advisor development programs are the skills, experience and willingness of those asked to do advising. These factors are defined as follows:

Skill: Understanding and applying basic principles necessary to perform as an advisor

Experience: Length of service as an advisor

Willingness: Extent to which an individual desires to participate in the advising program

As has been frequently pointed out in the literature, a training program can have excellent content, but without advisor participation it will not be successful.

Neither is it an easy task to insure a high degree of participation in such programs, precisely because of the various skill and experience levels of the faculty. In addition, a number of studies have identified potential conflicts for faculty who do advising: (1) faculty advisors tend to be subject-matter oriented and lack university-wide information and knowledge; (2) faculty advisors are not generally provided with an adequate reward system for advising; (3) not all faculty are interested in or recognize the importance of this service; (4) faculty advisors are not as accessible; (5) faculty lack training in the skills and techniques necessary for effective advising; and (6) faculty often have difficulty in keeping updated on institutional regulations, procedures, job outlooks, and so forth. These issues must be recognized and addressed in designing advisor training programs and opportunities must be provided for faculty to acquire the necessary skills in a format appropriate to their needs. This is especially true if developmental advising is to become a reality on college campuses.

Training Techniques

The third factor in advisor training is *training techniques*. This area is perhaps the most important, for to achieve the desired outcomes, these techniques must be integrated with both content areas and audience characteristics. Some training techniques have already been mentioned in this chapter, while there are many others to be found in the literature. A thorough discussion of training techniques could occupy a comprehensive monograph. Listed below are generic training techniques suggested by Dugan Laird (1978).

Learner listens and watches

* Lecture
* Reading (assignments, handouts)
* Demonstrations (live, filmed, or with trainer modeling)

Learner Watches and Moves

* Field Trips
* On-site Observations

Learner Talks, Writes, and Responds

* Note Taking
* Free Form Note Taking
* Programmed Instruction

* Structured Discussion
* Panel Discussion (learners)
* Panel Discussion (Guests)
* Open Forum Discussion
* Question-Answer Discussions

Learner Manipulates

* Demonstration with Learner Imitating Instructor
* Performance tryout

Learner Makes Decisions

* Brainstorming
* Action Maze
* Traditional Case Study
* In-Baskets
* Incident Process
* Team Tasks (Decisions)
* Team Tasks (Agendas)
* Fishbowls
* Roleplays
* Rotation Roleplays
* Simulations
* Games
* Clinic
* Critical Incidents
* T-groups
* Hot Roleplays
* O-D data gathering

Although not all of Laird's techniques are applicable to advisor training, they may help the reader conceptualize advisor training involving more than a one full day (or less) workshop featuring a series of individuals delivering lectures on issues of importance to academic advisors.

Whatever the training technique, however, consideration must be given to all areas of a student's development, for the academic and personal development of students cannot logically be separated. Academic advising based on developmental theory legitimately recognizes this wholeness and serves to encourage the development of each student's life in and out of the classroom.

The advisor's role is to better understand student needs and to appreciate the various stages through which students are passing. Academic advising must evolve from programs that have as their sole function the filling out and signing of registration cards to a system that responds to the student as an individual in the process of change--intellectually, psychologically, physically, socially and ethically. Advisor training programs can assist in this process by providing an agenda that encourages students to clarify interests, skills, attitudes and values; develop habits of discipline; experience choice and develop autonomy; experience achievement; establish a positive lifestyle (wellness); and develop purpose and direction.

This concept of advising is quite far removed from the bureaucratic, clerkish function described by Walsh (1979). To perform this new function, advisors must learn to play some unaccustomed roles, among them counselor, advocate, and guardian. As Walsh (1978, p. 448) notes: "A new repertoire of advisor behavior is required if the developmental function of advisement is to be truly realized." Among these new behaviors will be decision-making skills, helping skills, interviewing skills, familiarity with some standard academic and career information resources, and finally, facility in the clarification of both values and skills.

A Training Model

How, then, can we train advisors in the acquisition and use of these developmental advising skills? One approach is the use of a circular process of inquiry which explores each area of concern: assessment, goal-setting, decision-making, and evaluation. The following model, developed by R. Paul Nelson, Dean for Student Development at Aquinas College, Grand Rapids, Michigan, incorporates this process. The model formulates the questions which advisors must be prepared to address in their interactions with students.

In the assessment phase, the advisor's role is to help advisees determine who they are. What are their strengths, concerns and values? Typical questions revolve around interests.

What do they like to do?

What have they enjoyed studying, learning, reading?
What have they learned on their own?
What experiences have been most interesting to them?
What are they most eager to learn?

What are their strengths? What do they do well?

In what subjects have they been most successful?
When do friends ask them for help?
What can they explain to others particularly well?
Are they intellectually curious?
What is their preferred learning style?

What are their weaknesses? What don't they do well?

In what subjects have they not been as successful?
What subjects or disciplines have been difficult for them?
What do they need to improve on academically to be successful in college?

What are their values? What is important to them?

What do they really want to learn in college?

ASSESSMENT:

What are the student's interests?
What are the student's strengths?
What are the student's weaknesses?
What are the student's values?
What are the student's concerns?

GOAL-SETTING:

Where is the student going?
What skills does the student want to develop?
Who does the student want to become?
What does the student want to be?

DECISION-MAKING:

How is the student going to get there?

What courses, activities, and experiences will prepare him or her for the future?

EVALUATION:

How is the student doing?

What has the student accomplished and what does he or she still need to do?

What else is necessary for the student to learn?

What motivates him or her to study?

What contributions does the student want to make to society as a result of his or her learning?

What are their concerns? What if...?

What if the student really doesn't know how to learn?

How does the student manage his or her time?

Does the student remember how to write a research paper?

Where can he or she go for help in writing, study skills, tutoring, etc.?

What should he or she major in?

The Goal-setting Phase

Where is the student going? Who and What does the student want to become?

What courses will best prepare the student for his or her future?

What courses will help the student select a major?

What courses will prepare the student for graduate school?

What courses will help him or her select a career?

What courses will expand and enhance his or her curiosity?

What skills should the student develop?

What courses will help him or her learn how to learn?

What courses will develop critical thinking and communication skills?

What courses will provide an understanding of human behavior?

What courses will give the student an appreciation of his or her heritage?

What courses will help the student gain different perspectives on problem-solving and decision making?

What does the student want to become?

What courses will assist in personal growth and development?

What courses will make the student a better person?

What courses will lead to expertise in an area?

What courses will prepare the student for a career?

What does the student want to be?

What courses and experiences will lead to the student's professional development?

What majors and concentrations lead to which careers?

What majors and concentrations lead to graduate programs?

The Decision-Making Phase

From the goal-setting phase, students move to the decision-making phase: How are they going to get there? What courses, activities and experiences will prepare them for the future?

What courses will develop the student's:

Learning skills;

Analytical abilities;

Quantitative abilities;

Understanding;

Research;

Evaluation,

Synthesizing and

Decision-making abilities?

Which major, cognates, minors and internships will be useful? What concentrations and related areas of study will prepare the student for his or her personal and professional life? Is the student computer, scientific, and technologically literate? Which co-curricular activities would be beneficial? What kinds of experiences and activities will contribute to the student's personal and professional growth and development?

The Evaluation Phase

From the decision-making phase, the student moves to the evaluation phase. How is he or she doing? What has the student accomplished and what does he or she still need to do?

Questions such as the preceding are an integral part of a student's education and continued growth and development. To assist students in answering these questions, the role of the advisor must be conceived very broadly. In taking this broad view, terms such as "mentor" and "counselor" can be used interchangeably with the term "advisor." Each term emphasizes assisting the advisee to take full advantage of the college experience. The advisor must be able to diagnose and prescribe as well as be supportive, empathetic, involved, and fully informed. Unlike the advisor role in prescriptive advising, the advising role becomes one of collaboration with the advisee.

Training Outcomes

Those who choose to do advising either enjoy the task and/or appreciate its vital importance. Whatever the reason, they should want to be as effective as possible. Each advisor has his or her own style and strengths. Some traits can be developed (e.g. knowledge of programs) while others can be used to advantage

(age/youth). Within limits, nearly every advisor can become better by examining his or her own strengths and weaknesses carefully, by seeking feedback from advisors or peers, and by making an effort to improve. Some critical attributes for advisors include:

Demonstrated concern for each advisee. The ideal relationship is one that is both non-judgmental and non-threatening on the one hand while capitalizing on the authoritativeness of the advisor. Although this balance is difficult to maintain, it can best be accomplished by demonstrating interest and helpful intent. Respect for the student and concern for his or her welfare is paramount.

Availability/Accessibility. Post and keep office hours and make certain that advisees know them. If possible, encourage in advisees the sense that they can easily "drop by" to let you know what they are up to. You might also seek out advisees in a variety of informal campus settings.

Taking the initiative for contact. Students, particularly freshman, are hesitant to make initial contact. The advisor who waits for the student to initiate contact will soon discover that contacts are few. Call the advisee, stop to chat on campus, or drop the advisee a note of invitation.

Listening skills. The most immediate impulse of the conscientious, concerned advisor is to solve the student's problem by making the decision and directing an outcome. In many cases, however, the student's most pressing need is finding a good listener. Most of the time solutions to problems become obvious as the advisee talks. An advisor who is an attentive listener often discovers that the advisee can solve his or her own problems. Quality listening will also allow the advisor to gain greater insights into the student's problems.

Realism. Discover and assess the advisees' self-expectations in relation to others. Give the advisee a realistic appraisal of how he or she compares to others and what performance levels can reasonably be expected.

Referral to others. Good referral skills are essential in the advisor-advisee relationship. Advisors should 1) be totally at ease with making a referral; 2) give the student an understanding of why the referral is being made; 3) be knowledgeable of services provided by the referral agent; and 4) help the student make an appointment with the referral agent.

Providing accurate information. Accurate information is the cornerstone of quality advising. Advisors must assist students in understanding programs, policies and procedures and should acquaint advisees with the catalog, advising hand book, planning worksheets, etc.

Keeping records. After an advisee conference, note the content of the discussion with particular attention paid to problems, proposals, or referrals. In preparation for an advising conference review notes of previous contacts.

Monitoring advisee's progress towards educational goals. One tool which is very helpful in this process is the advising contract. The advising contract is the result of a deliberate process between advisor and advisee that describes the tasks to be undertaken and the responsibilities of each party. Usually such a contract includes the following components: 1) expectations that the advisor and advisee have of each other, 2) goals and objectives of advising, 3) needs and resources of advisor and advisee, 4) various roles to be played by significant others, 5) process by which difficulties (personal, interpersonal, or other) will be handled and 6) evaluation of the advising relationship.

Celebrating success. Students deserve encouragement for their achievements. Oddly, they seldom get it since achievements are quite relative. Let your advisee know you value his or her efforts and success relative to abilities.

Conclusion

These advisor tips can go only so far in helping individuals become better advisors. When they are integrated with the other concepts discussed in this chapter, however, an effective training program can be designed to help faculty provide a challenging, supportive environment in which students lead a balance, holistic lifestyle. Academic advisors, properly trained, can play a crucial role in such an environment by sharing their talents, interest, and concern in helping students to make the critical decisions that will make their education and future purposeful and rewarding.

CHAPTER 8

Evaluating and Rewarding Advisors

David S. Crockett

Evaluate — "To determine the significance or worth usually by careful appraisal or study."

Reward — "Something that is given in return for some service or attainment."

--Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary

Evaluation of some kind, by someone, for some purpose, formal or informal, is an element in virtually all organized efforts. Academic advising should be no exception to this general principal. This chapter examines the role of evaluation and reward in the organization and delivery of advising services. It is based on six basic assumptions or premises:

(1) evaluation and measurement can improve program effectiveness and individual advisor performance;

(2) academic advising programs, as well as individual advisors, should be systematically and periodically appraised;

(3) advisee evaluation is the most direct and useful method of assessing advising effectiveness;

(4) if advising is part of an individual's position responsibility, then effectiveness as an advisor should be a consideration in decisions about that individual involving promotion, tenure, merit pay etc;

(5) for an evaluation program to have any usefulness there must be a strong link between performance, appraisal of performance, and reward for quality performance; and

(6) every evaluation system can be improved: there is no perfect method of evaluating the totality of advisor or program performance.

The American College Testing Program (ACT) has conducted three national surveys on the status of academic advising in colleges and universities (Carstensen and Silberhorn, 1979; Crockett and Levitz, 1984; Habley, Crockett, and Cowart, 1987). Each of these studies examined the role of evaluation and reward as elements in the institution's advising program. A review of the findings from these studies reveals the following:

- There are few effective systems in place for the evaluation of academic advising and little reward or recognition attached to its successful delivery (Carstensen and Silberhorn, 1979).

- The vast majority of institutions have not implemented a systematic and periodic appraisal of either their advising programs or individual advisors (Crockett and Levitz, 1984).

- Less than one-half of institutions report regular evaluation of advising program effectiveness. Evaluation of faculty advisors is not widespread. Institutions continue to place little priority on recognition or reward for those engaged in academic advising (Habley, Crockett and Cowart, 1987).

In the most recent survey, respondents were asked to consider both the current effectiveness and the progress made in the past five years on 11 organizational and administrative variables, including evaluation and recognition/reward. Figure 1 presents the mean or average effectiveness scores for each item for each institutional type. The respondents were asked to rate the items using a scale of 1 (very ineffective) to 5 (very effective).

Figure 1

Effectiveness of Campus Advising Programs

	Two-Year Public		Two-Year Private		Four-Year Public		Four-Year Private		Total	
	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank		
Advisee information	3.49	(1)	3.48	(2)	3.13	(2)	3.76	(1)	3.51	(1)
Meeting Student Needs	3.43	(2)	3.48	(2)	3.16	(1)	3.53	(2)	3.40	(2)
Advisor Traits	3.25	(3)	3.39	(5)	3.07	(3)	3.52	(3)	3.32	(3)
Campus-wide Communication	3.19	(4)	3.59	(1)	3.06	(4)	3.42	(4)	3.28	(4)
Program Economy	3.12	(5)	3.41	(4)	2.83	(5)	3.35	(6)	3.16	(5)
Advisor Selection	2.87	(7)	3.19	(6)	2.80	(6)	3.36	(5)	3.06	(6)
Campus-wide Coordination	3.04	(6)	2.96	(7)	2.66	(7)	3.13	(7)	2.99	(7)
Accountability	2.47	(8)	2.69	(8)	2.13	(9)	2.51	(9)	2.43	(8)
Training	2.39	(9)	2.44	(9)	2.31	(8)	2.54	(8)	2.42	(9)
Evaluation	2.35	(10)	2.30	(10)	1.99	(10)	2.33	(10)	2.26	(10)
Recognition/Reward	1.91	(11)	2.31	(11)	1.85	(11)	2.08	(11)	1.98	(11)

Figure 2 presents the mean improvement scores for each item by institutional type. The respondents were asked to rate each item on the degree to which item effectiveness had changed during the past five years. The rating scale ranged from 1 (much less effective) to 5 (much more effective).

Figure 2

Improvement in Advising Program During the Last Five Years

	Two-Year Public		Two-Year Private		Four-Year Public		Four-Year Private		Total	
	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank		
Advisee Information	3.80	(2)	3.89	(2)	3.84	(1)	3.94	(1)	3.87	(1)
Meeting Student Needs	3.84	(1)	3.85	(3)	3.73	(2)	3.82	(2)	3.81	(2)
Advisor Traits	3.54	(6)	3.56	(7)	3.55	(3)	3.53	(6)	3.54	(6)
Campus-wide Communication	3.63	(3)	3.93	(1)	3.55	(3)	3.68	(3)	3.66	(3)
Program Economy	3.59	(4)	3.78	(4)	3.49	(6)	3.67	(4)	3.61	(4)
Advisor Selection	3.40	(7)	3.37	(10)	3.38	(8)	3.46	(7)	3.41	(7)
Campus-wide Coordination	3.56	(5)	3.78	(4)	3.51	(5)	3.58	(5)	3.58	(5)
Accountability	3.24	(10)	3.54	(9)	3.14	(10)	3.22	(9)	3.23	(10)
Training	3.31	(8)	3.56	(7)	3.49	(6)	3.38	(8)	3.39	(8)
Evaluation	3.25	(9)	3.59	(6)	3.31	(9)	3.22	(9)	3.27	(9)
Recognition/Reward	2.97	(11)	3.27	(11)	3.14	(10)	3.16	(11)	3.09	(11)

Among all institutional types the two variables were ranked 10th (Evaluation) and 11th (Recognition/Reward) in terms of effectiveness. In terms of perceived improvement during the last five years, these same two elements were rated 9th and 11th respectively.

Although most respondents reported their campuses had made some progress in these areas, they were among the areas of least improvement for almost all institutional types. It is interesting to speculate as to why this situation exists. Whether it can be attributed to apathy, a lack of belief in the value of evaluation or recognition, or simply a lack of commitment to academic advising is difficult to ascertain. Regardless of how one might explain this state of affairs, these findings provide dramatic evidence of the need for many colleges to develop and implement more effective evaluation and recognition programs.

Although administrative support and commitment is critical to the development of an effective evaluation/reward program, some administrators do little more than provide a lip service commitment to providing advising services. There is no substitute for strong administrative leadership in support of an advising evaluation/reward program. Without such a commitment, efforts to initiate evaluation/reward programs are doomed to fail. Obtaining the support of those persons to whom the academic advisors are ultimately responsible (e.g., chief academic officer, dean, department head) is an essential first step. These individuals must be prepared, not only to present a rational and articulate case for the potential benefits that can accrue from an evaluation/reward program, but also to overcome predictable advisor resistance to such programs.

A truly supportive administration can be easily identified by such visible and tangible commitments to the total advising program as development of an institutional policy statement on academic advising, assignment of responsibility/authority, allocation of adequate resources, and provision of an advising information system. Where such indicators are already in place it becomes much easier to gain administrative support for an evaluation program and a reward system which encourages and recognizes good advising. It is also helpful if the institution has already instituted a teaching evaluation system. The evaluation of advisor performance is a natural extension of such evaluation efforts.

Brown and Sanstead (1982, p. 57) have stressed the relationship between evaluating the effectiveness of an advising program and the level of administrative commitment: "The greater the commitment, the more likely the institution is going to be receptive to changes designed to improve the advising system. An institution with a high commitment level is also more likely to help an evaluator collect information and utilize evaluative information for decision making."

The ultimate key to attracting administrative support may reside in documenting that academic advising is a powerful educational intervention which can improve the quality of education experienced by students. Administrators need to be convinced that students who have developed a personally determined educational/career plan will have an increased chance for success, satisfaction, and persistence and that academic advising is the most significant mechanism for realizing this goal. In this broader context, evaluation/reward become only two of a number of factors important to developing a quality advising program.

Kramer (1983, p. 28) has also observed that evaluation of an institution's advising program can be potentially beneficial to administrators interested in improving organizational effectiveness. "Concerted and concentrated efforts to improve advising may provide institutional benefits other than the mere improvement of advising services. . . . Advising frequently brings issues and problems to the surface that are related to what the institution says is important." The administration needs to exert leadership in formulating a set of objectives which

can be used to shape the eventual character of the evaluation/reward program. These goals should address the question "Why evaluate?" A well designed evaluation program can and should achieve multiple objectives. Such purposes need to be agreed upon and then clearly articulated to all those affected by the program. The following are typical evaluation program goals:

1. To determine how well the advising system is working.

2. To obtain information on individual advisor performance for the purpose of self-improvement.

3. To gain information on areas of weakness in order to better develop in-service training strategies.

4. To provide data for use in administering a recognition/reward system for individual advisors.

5. To gather data to support requests for funding or gain improved administrative support of the advising program.

Institutions need to periodically appraise their advising programs in order to ascertain the overall effectiveness of the campus advising system. Figure 3 compares the responses given in the 1983 and 1988 National Surveys of Academic Advising to the question: Does your institution regularly evaluate the overall effectiveness of your advising program?"

Figure 3

Regular Evaluation of Program Effectiveness

	2-Year Public		2-Year Private		4-Year Public		4-Year Private		All Institutions	
	83	87	83	87	83	87	83	87	83	87
Yes	22%	44.7%	7%	63.0%	17%	31.1%	23%	45.1%	21%	42.5%
No	75	55.3	89	37.0	80	68.9	74	54.9	76	57.5
Blank	4	N/A	4	N/A	3	N/A	3	N/A	6	N/A

While it is encouraging to note the trend toward increased advising program evaluation, it is discouraging to learn that it is still the case that less than one-half of the institutions engage in any type of regular and systematic evaluation of their advising program. One might assume that those institutions with centralized advising offices might be more inclined to regularly evaluate the effectiveness of these offices. As can be observed in Figure 4, such is not necessarily the case.

Figure 4

Effectiveness of Advising Office Regularly Evaluated

	2-Year Public	2-Year Private	4-Year Public	4-Year Private	Total
Yes	47.5%	60.0%	46.4%	35.8%	42.7%
No	52.5	40.0	53.6	64.2	57.3
n =	101	10	56	95	267

Burton Clark, in his book The Academic Life: Small Worlds, Different Worlds (1988, p. 98), states that "the greatest paradox of academic work in modern America is that most professors teach most of the time, and large proportions of them teach all the time, but teaching is not the activity most rewarded by the academic profession nor most valued by the system at large." Most faculty also serve as advisors yet there is even less recognition or reward associated with the role of faculty advisor. Nearly one-half of all institutions provide no recognition or reward in any of their academic departments for those who function as faculty advisors. In fact, when comparing institutional types, no institutional type appears to place a major priority on recognition or reward for faculty advising (Habley, Crockett and Cowart, 1987).

The degree to which faculty advising is either recognized or rewarded is shown in Figure 5. Of those institutions that provide some mechanism for recognition/reward, the most prevalent approach is to make performance as an advisor a minor consideration in making decisions about promotion and tenure.

Figure 5

Recognition/Reward for Faculty Advising

Recognition/Award	Two-Year Public			Two-Year Private			Four-Year Public			Four-Year Private			Total		
	All	Some	No	All	Some	No	All	Some	No	All	Some	No	All	Some	No
Released Time From Instruction	4.3	9.5	86.2	15.0	5.0	80.0	4.6	29.9	65.5	4.9	12.7	82.4	5.2	15.7	79.1
Released Time From Committee Work	1.1	7.4	91.5	10.0	5.0	85.0	4.6	21.8	73.6	2.8	10.6	86.6	2.0	13.5	84.5
Released Time From Research Expectation	1.1	0.0	98.9	10.0	0.0	90.0	3.4	11.5	85.1	1.4	4.2	94.4	1.4	5.8	92.8
Salary Increments for Time Spent in Advising	2.1	6.3	91.5	5.0	10.0	85.0	0.0	10.3	89.7	3.5	15.5	81.0	2.3	11.5	86.2
Major Consideration in Promotion and Tenure	2.1	8.5	89.4	15.0	5.0	80.0	4.6	20.7	74.7	8.5	16.1	75.4	6.0	14.9	79.1
Minor Consideration in Promotion and Tenure	6.4	14.9	78.7	15.0	0.0	85.0	8.0	51.8	40.2	24.6	31.7	43.7	14.6	31.0	54.4
Awards for Excellence in Advising	1.1	7.4	91.5	5.0	5.0	90.0	2.3	12.6	85.1	1.4	7.1	91.5	1.7	8.6	89.7
No Reward	59.6	13.8	26.6	55.0	20.0	35.0	32.2	24.1	43.7	39.4	17.6	43.0	44.4	17.5	38.1

Although recognition/reward systems for academic advisors are not commonplace, the merit and importance of providing some form of recognition/reward seems more widely accepted. Polson and Cashin (1981), in an effort to identify factors that might improve academic advising programs found that, in an open-ended format, the largest single category of responses dealt with improving the rewards for effective advising. Larson and Brown (1983) found that there was general agreement among administrators and faculty that advising should be rewarded with reduction in teaching and research responsibilities, with merit salary increases, and by consideration in promotion and tenure evaluations.

The type of reward system employed for advising at a given institution is closely related to the importance placed on advising at that institution. Although it is important not to overlook the intrinsic rewards an advisor may find in helping students, lack of some type of tangible reward system can impede the delivery of

effective advising. It is only logical to conclude that if advising is an agreed upon responsibility, then it should be a factor in the evaluation of the individual and somehow recognized/rewarded in decisions about that individual.

It follows that if advising is to be rewarded then it must be evaluated. The remainder of this chapter examines a number of factors related to developing and implementing a program for evaluating both overall advising programs and individual advisor performance.

ACT Academic Advising Audit

Some institutions have found the ACT Academic Advising Audit (Crockett, 1987) a helpful tool in evaluating the organization and delivery of advising services on their campuses. The audit involves a four-step process very similar to that which an external consultant might follow if called upon to review an academic advising program. In this case the institution serves as its own consultant.

The elements reviewed in the audit are those that have been identified in the research on advising as being important characteristics in the organization and delivery of effective advising services. In this sense, the audit is not empirically based. The items have face validity because they are related to elements that have most frequently been associated with successful advising programs. The audit should not be viewed as a scientific instrument, but rather as an evaluation tool that can be helpful in assisting the user to analyze and improve advising services for students. Like any tool, the audit has some limitations. For example, it addresses the organization and delivery of advising services more directly than it does the quality of advising by individual advisors. The audit includes the following steps:

Step 1: The Academic Advising Audit begins with information gathering. In Step 1 institutions are asked to respond to a series of questions about their undergraduate advising program.

Step 2: In this phase, institutions conduct an evaluation of the information gathered through a self-scoring procedure. To assist in understanding the basis for the ratings, a brief explanation accompanies the questions and scoring key.

Step 3: Once the information has been collected and evaluated, institutions carry out an analysis of the information. Questions and corresponding scores are grouped and totaled by major categories so as to identify those elements which contribute positively to the advising program and those areas which may need improvement. In addition, specific reasons for these strengths and weaknesses are identified. Because the audit parallels closely the 1987 ACT National Survey on

Academic Advising, it permits institutions to compare their results with results from similar institutions nationally.

Step 4: The final step is action planning. A series of recommendations is presented for further review, study, and action.

CAS Standards and Guidelines for Academic Advising

The Council for Advancement of Standards for Student Services/Development Programs (CAS) in collaboration with various professional associations, including the National Academic Advising Association, has developed the CAS Standards and Guidelines (1986). This document contains guidelines and standards for 16 student services areas, including advising. The guidelines are intended to serve as program development and evaluation tools in a self-study mode.

Using the CAS statement in an academic advising program evaluation effort can provide specific guidelines for program improvement. CAS has also developed a Self Assessment Guide designed to help institutions translate the CAS Standards and Guidelines into a self-study format. The guide provides (1) a scale for reporting the extent to which a program or unit undergoing self-study is in compliance with the Standards; (2) assessment criteria for making the judgements; and (3) a section for summarizing evaluative evidence and actions that may be needed to correct deficiencies and bring the program into compliance with guidelines.

Administration, Advisor, and Student Evaluation of the Advising Program

Institutions engaging in overall program evaluation need to develop a mechanism for obtaining the reactions and perceptions of the above groups. Most evaluative instruments designed for individual advisor evaluation such as the ACT Survey of Academic Advising can be easily adapted for use in overall program evaluation. Felicetti and Dause (1986) describe how the ACT Survey of Academic Advising was used at the University of Detroit to evaluate advising services in a special program designed to serve low-income/disadvantaged students.

Individual Advisor Evaluation

The ACT National Survey of Academic Advising (Habley, Crockett and Cowart, 1987) reveals that the majority of institutions have no formal method of individual advisor evaluation in their academic units or departments. This general lack of evaluation of individual advisor performance on many campuses can often be traced to one or more of the following factors:

1. Placing a low priority on advising responsibilities in the total faculty evaluation scheme.

2. Confusion about the purposes for which the evaluation is being conducted.

3. General resistance by faculty to evaluation.

4. Lack of consensus on acceptable evaluation criteria.

5. Fear of student evaluation as a major component in advisor evaluation.

6. Lack of a tangible recognition/reward system tied directly to the evaluation of individual advisor performance.

The following observations on each of the above evaluation issues may be helpful to those attempting to establish an individual advisor evaluation program.

Placing a Low Priority on Advising Responsibilities in the Total Faculty Evaluation Scheme

Traditional faculty evaluation programs are usually confined to research, teaching, service, and professional activities. Miller (1972), however, developed a model for faculty evaluation that takes a broader view of college teaching responsibilities. He proposed that the following nine categories should be used in describing and evaluating faculty: classroom teaching, advising, faculty service and relations, management/administration, performing and visual arts, professional services, publications, public service, and research. It is important that whatever evaluation scheme is adopted, academic advising be one of the separate categories given consideration in the evaluation process. This is not necessarily to suggest that advising be given equal weight with other functions, but that it be given due consideration in the overall evaluation of a faculty member.

Academic advising responsibilities are too often ignored in collective bargaining agreements and institutional documents describing faculty responsibilities. Faculty understandably do not wish to be held accountable for functions not specified or barely mentioned in such documents. Grites and Teague (1980) examined 326 collective bargaining agreements and faculty contract/handbooks for formally stated faculty responsibilities for advising. The major conclusion from this study was that academic advising as a faculty responsibility tends to be neglected in both collective bargaining agreements and faculty contracts/handbooks regardless of the type of institution. Until academic advising is recognized as a legitimate evaluation category for faculty evaluation, and this fact is spelled out specifically in institutional documents dealing with faculty

responsibilities, attempts to implement an advisor evaluation program will be frustrated.

A practical problem with multiple-based evaluation systems is giving each category the appropriate weighting. Braskamp, Brandenburg, and Ory (1984, p. 78) address the problem of weighting the relative importance of various areas of responsibility:

> Each piece of information needs to be weighed in terms of its importance in determining a summative evaluation of an instructor. This weighting process is one of the most critical phases in an evaluation. Unfortunately, few explicit guidelines can be written, since this is heavily based on the professional judgements of those faculty, colleagues, and administrators examining the information. This weighting process, however, need not be secretive and done without a rationale.
>
> One of the best strategies in weighting information is the use of a set of accepted prescribed weights. This can be done by having faculty and administrators establish as policy the importance to be given to each area or criteria and their measured indicators (e.g., student ratings of instruction) in determining faculty teaching competence. Thus weights given to each area are known to the faculty before evaluation takes place.

Figure 6 is a sample weighting scheme from Braskamp, Brandenburg, and Ory (1984).

Figure 6

A Weighting Scheme for Evaluating Faculty for Annual Reviews

Area of Responsibility	Total Points	Source		
		Students	Peers	Self
Instruction	70			
Classroom performance	40	20	15	5
Advising	20	15		5
Course development	10		5	5
Service	10		5	5
Research	10		10	
Professional development	10		5	5
Totals	100	35	40	25

Note that advising is given a weighting of 20 percent of a total faculty evaluation scheme.

Braskamp, Brandenburg, and Ory (1984, p. 79) also caution against over-reliance on such weighting schemes. "In using these schemes, a false sense of objectivity can occur, however. The process becomes mechanical and looks objective; but this strength is also its weakness. Evaluation of professional people like faculty is too complex and subjective to have everything reduced to a number."

Confusion About the Purposes for Which the Evaluation is Being Conducted

Evaluation is often thought of as either formative or summative. Formative evaluation is designed to foster individual advisor self-development and improvement. Summative evaluation, on the other hand, seeks specific information on individual advisor performance for the purpose of making personnel decisions and judgements of effectiveness. According to Kramer (1982, p. 31), "In advising, formative evaluation seeks answers to the question: 'What can or should the advisor do to become a more effective advisor?' Summative evaluation concerns itself with answering the question: 'How effective, or productive, or helpful was the advisor?' "

Figure 7 is a comparison of the two types of evaluative functions across several dimensions.

Figure 7

A Comparison Of Formative And Summative Evaluations

	FORMATIVE	SUMMATIVE
PURPOSE	Self-development and improvement of performance	Personnel decisions (tenure, merit pay, promotion)
FOCUS	Future Performance	Past Performance
ROLE OF SUPERVISOR	To support, assist, make suggestions	To judge or rate performance
PRIMARY METHODS	Self-evaluations Student evaluations	Administrative evaluations Student evaluations
FREQUENCY	Continually	Annually
TYPE OF INFORMATION	Strengths and weaknesses Descriptions of behaviors	Overall effectiveness and competence
PRIMARY AUDIENCE	Advisor	Supervisor

The confusion that sometimes exists concerning the formative and summative purposes of evaluation can become an obstacle in the development of an advising evaluation program unless the reasons for evaluation are clearly communicated to all concerned. Both purposes share the common goal of improving individual advisor effectiveness. And, both involve the gathering, interpreting, and sharing of data, but that is where the similarity ends. The intent of summative evaluation is to use the data to make decisions about individual advisors while the intent of formative evaluation is to gather data that can help individuals improve their performance as advisors.

Formative evaluation is obviously more readily accepted by advisors and, therefore, easier to implement. Summative evaluation is potentially more threatening to some advisors and, therefore, more likely to encounter resistance. Kramer (1982, p. 32) discusses potential faculty acceptance of the two types of evaluation:

> It seems reasonable to conclude that a well-reasoned and publicly-discussed means of gathering data about faculty performance in advising may generally be acceptable to faculty. Within a formative evaluation paradigm, one might expect many faculty advisors to welcome the opportunity to receive information about their

performance as advisors. Assessment efforts designed specifically to assist faculty in their development and improvement as advisors, therefore, likely face low levels of faculty resistance or resentment.

The existence or the promulgation of evaluation programs to meet institutional needs causes some concern among faculty. In spite of the many changes that have occurred in academe, the belief remains deeply embedded that the individual should be unimpeded in his or her efforts to develop approaches to teaching, to undertake appealing research and control his or her destiny. These feelings are felt most strongly when summative evaluation efforts are used to formulate decisions regarding dispensing of organizational recognition and reward. Faculty concerns about this use of evaluation data have been deeply felt and strongly held.

A comprehensive evaluation program must obviously include both formative and summative components. For example, the provision of a recognition/reward system for advisors is predicated on the use of information in a summative manner. According to Kramer (1982, p. 34), "It is not a matter of which form of evaluation be given priority; rather the challenge is how best to establish an organizational framework that will permit both to exist and contribute to organizational health and vitality." Braskamp, Brandenburg, and Ory (1984, p. 11) emphasize that "these purposes are to be viewed as complementary. Conflicts that emerge from evaluating faculty simultaneously for both purposes need to be recognized and dealt with, but if an evaluation is properly designed and implemented, both purposes can be served with a minimal amount of conflict and with increased efficiency and effectiveness."

General Resistance by Faculty to Evaluation

Some people simply don't like the notion of being evaluated for any reason. This may be particularly true of college faculty given their characteristics and perceptions. Thoreson and Hosokawa (1984, p. 123) observe that "faculty work in an environment of low supervision, low visibility of performance, freedom of time demands, and vaguely defined and non-enforced standards of performance." Blackburn (1974, p. 77) states that "college professors are jealous of their independence, proud of their specialized competencies, not easily led, and suspicious of being told what or how they serve." Arreola (1983, p. 86) contends that "no one enjoys being evaluated. Few people enjoy being told that they need to improve, or worse, need to be developed, especially people who have spent six to eight years in college being evaluated and developed to the point where they were awarded advanced degrees." If there is any validity in these characterizations of college faculty, then it is not surprising that some faculty advisors react with active resistance or even hostility to efforts to install an evaluation system.

Arreola (1983, p. 86) maintains that faculty resistance to being evaluated grows out of three basic concerns:

(1) resentment of the implied assumption that faculty may be incompetent;

(2) suspicion that they will be evaluated by unqualified people; and

(3) anxiety that they will be held accountable for performance in an area in which they may have little or no training or interest.

All these general concerns apply to any evaluation of faculty advisors and must be addressed early in the planning stages.

It can also be helpful to acknowledge that some faculty resistance is to be expected and to understand that such resistance undergoes five predictable stages according to Arreola (1983, p. 88).

Stage 1: Disdainful denial stage. During this stage, faculty generally take the attitude that "It'll never work" or, in the case of oldtimers, "We tried that ten years ago. It didn't work then and it's not going to work this time either."

Stage 2: Hostile resistance stage. During this stage, faculty begin to realize that the administration is going ahead with the development and implementation of the program in the face of all logic, reason, and sanity. Faculty senate meetings are hot and heavy. Special subcommittees are appointed. Complaints flow into the various levels of administration.

Stage 3: Apparent acquiescence stage. Faculty seem to resign themselves to the fact that an arbitrary and overly complex program is going to be implemented despite objections. Most faculty hope that if they ignore the program it will go away. A few voices of support are heard at this stage, however.

Stage 4: Attempt to scuttle stage. At this stage, certain elements of the faculty and perhaps some department chairmen or deans greatly exaggerate the impact of the problems the system is causing. Some isolated incidents of outright misuse of the system may be perpetrated in an effort to get the program to collapse. Pressure on the sponsoring administrator to resign is intensified.

Stage 5: Grudging acceptance stage. After 18 months to two years of operation, faculty find that the program can actually be of some value once in a while. When all faculty are nearly equally but minimally

unhappy with the program, the faculty resistance barrier will have been successfully overcome.

A number of authors have addressed the issue of overcoming faculty resistance to evaluation (Grasha, 1977; O'Connell and Smartt, 1979; Arreola, 1979; Seldin, 1980; and O'Connell and Wergin, 1982). Although it is not within the scope of this chapter to deal in detail with this important topic, those interested in pursuing this area in more depth will find these sources of interest.

While administrative support is an important prerequisite for establishing an evaluation program, it is not sufficient in and of itself. It is also necessary to gain advisor acceptance of the program. Since instructional faculty have advising responsibility at most colleges and universities, their acceptance and support for a program of individual advisor evaluation must be sought. Following are some suggested strategies adapted from the literature on faculty evaluation (Miller, 1972 and Arreola, 1983) which are pertinent to gaining broad advisor support of an advisor evaluation program.

- Plan carefully to assure a participatory and democratic process.
- Involve the advisor corps at the critical stages of program development. By gaining involvement and a feeling of "ownership" in the process many potential problems and organized resistance can be avoided.
- Seek the support and participation of faculty opinion leaders early in the process.
- Establish a steering committee to guide the development and implementation of the program.
- Anticipate some resistance and be prepared to respond to common concerns and questions.
- Hold open forums or meetings to provide ample opportunity for expressions of concern.
- Consider the use of an external consultant to serve as a buffer between the advisors and the administration during program development.
- Do not ask faculty to "vote" on the desirability of an advisor evaluation program. Rather, seek their cooperation and assistance in the construction of a fair, equitable program.
- Incorporate multiple measures of advisor effectiveness.

- Present advisor evaluation as a component of the total faculty evaluation and development program.
- Draw comparisons, where appropriate, between student evaluation of teaching and student evaluation of advising.
- Select a standardized evaluation instrument, thus negating potential arguments regarding criteria for evaluation.
- Implement in stages preceded by a "pilot" phase allowing for necessary refinements.
- Link evaluation program to development and training opportunities.
- Assure a tangible reward structure linked directly to the results of the evaluation program.

Lack of Consensus on Acceptable Evaluation Criteria

What constitutes good advising? Can good advising be distinguished from bad advising? Is is possible to describe the behaviors associated with outstanding advising? Answers to questions like these are central to the establishment of an effective advisor evaluation program. If institutions are unable to define and describe effective advising, they will certainly experience difficulty in attempting to measure advisor effectiveness.

Critics and nay-sayers attempt to challenge the validity of any criteria selected. They say that good advising, like good teaching, is more of an art than a science and for that reason defies objective measurement of any kind. They contend that the relational aspects of advising are the most important and also the most difficult to measure. Such statements need to be challenged and evidence presented that it is possible to reach consensus on a set of advisor characteristics and behaviors that have strong face validity with the criterion of effective advising. It should be noted that it is usually easier to determine such criteria than to develop satisfactory measures to assess the criteria selected.

Most colleges have been able to reach a consensual definition of good teaching which they can use for evaluative purposes. The research on teaching effectiveness is voluminous. (The interested reader is referred to the following reviews of the literature on the evaluation of teaching: Aubrecht, 1979 and 1981; McKeachie, 1979; Peterson and Walberg, 1980; Aleamoni, 1981; March, 1984; Braskamp, Brandenburg, and Ory 1984; and Selding, 1987). Since most people would agree that evaluating teaching is a more complex task than evaluating advising, it would seem reasonable to conclude that they could successfully identify the characteristics of good advising. Unfortunately, research on what makes an effective advisor is more limited than the research base on effective

teaching. Crockett (1987) provides a variety of resources that can be used to develop criteria statements of effective advising. Institutional statements on academic advising can be good sources for descriptions of expected advising behaviors and functions. Following are the characteristics of a good advisor according to a statement issued by Bradley University:

Is personally and professionally interested in being an advisor.

Listens constructively, attempting to hear all aspects of students' expressed problems.

Sets aside enough regularly scheduled time to adequately meet the advising needs of students assigned to him.

Knows university policy and practice in sufficient detail to provide students with accurate, usable information.

Refers students to other sources of information and assistance when referral seems to be the best, student-centered response to be made.

Attempts to understand student concerns from a student point of view.

Views long-range planning as well as immediate problem-solving as an essential part of effective advising.

Shares his advising skills with working colleagues who also are actively involved with advising.

Continually attempts to improve both the style and substance of his advising role.

Willingly and actively participates in advisor training programs, both initial and in-service.

The ACT Survey of Academic Advising (See Chapter 3) contains a section on impressions of academic advisors. These 36 items, adapted from a review of existing evaluation instruments, represent another set of criteria of effective advisor behaviors:

Knows who I am	Allows sufficient time to discuss issues or problems
Is a good listener	Is willing to discuss personal problems
Expresses interest in me as a unique individual	Anticipates my needs

Respects my opinions and feelings

Is available when I need assistance

Provides a caring, open atmosphere

Checks to make sure we understand each other

Respects my right to make my own decisions

Provides me with accurate information about requirements, prerequisites, etc.

Keeps me up to date on changes in academic requirements

Refers me to other sources from which I can obtain assistance

Encourages me to assume an active role in planning my academic program

Accepts constructive feedback concerning his/her effectiveness as an advisor

Encourages me to achieve my educational goals

Helps me identify the obstacles I need to overcome to reach my educational goals

Takes the initiative in arranging meetings with me

Is on time for appointments with me

Clearly defines advisor/advisee responsibilities

Helps me select courses that match my interests and abilities

Helps me to examine my needs, interests, and values

Is familiar with my academic background

Encourages me to talk about myself and my college experiences

Encourages my interest in an academic discipline

Encourages my involvement in extracurriccular activities

Helps me explore careers in my field of interest

Is knowledgeable about courses outside my major area of study

Seems to enjoy advising

Is approachable and easy to talk to

Shows concern for my personal growth and development

Keeps personal information confidential

Is flexible in helping me plan my academic program

Has a sense of humor

Is a helpful, effective advisor whom I would recommend to other students

Kapraun and Coldren (1980) identify nine qualities of an advisor which students are asked to evaluate:

--Is consistently available, on time for appointments with you.

--Keeps regular, adequate office hours.

--Is aware of and has access to information you need.

--Takes time to become acquainted with you personally.

--Discusses your academic goals and progress toward these goals with you.

--Refers you when necessary, to the proper college representative, administrative staff member, or counselor.

--Is one with whom you have a congenial relationship.

--Has a positive constructive attitude toward advising in general.

--Keeps you up-to-date on change in your course of study.

Finally, the ACT/NACADA National Recognition Program for Academic Advising suggests yet another set of criteria to describe an outstanding advisor:

- Demonstration of caring attitude toward advisees
- Effective interpersonal skills
- Availability to advisees
- Frequency of contact with advisees
- Seeking out advisees in informal settings
- Intrusive behavior designed to build a strong relationship with advisees
- Monitoring of student progress toward academic and career goals
- Mastery of institutional regulations, policies, and procedures
- Use of appropriate information sources
- Appropriate referral activity
- Ability to engage in developmental advising (career and life planning) versus simply course scheduling
- Attendance at and support of advisor development programs

These examples document that it is quite feasible to reach agreement on which advisor characteristics are associated with good advising.

Regardless of the criteria eventually selected, King (1984, p. 373) stresses the importance of each advisor knowing exactly which criteria are being applied in the evaluation process. "All practitioners involved in delivering advising should be evaluated at regular intervals. But the advisors need to know what criteria are being used to evaluate them. A common error that can devastate morale and lead to some highly counterproductive outcomes is the absence of mutually understood criteria for evaluation. The practitioners should be involved in the development of these criteria."

It should be remembered that any set of criteria, no matter how thoughtfully established, can always be improved. Miller (1972, p. 8) warns that we should have no illusions about perfection in such matters: "Some academicians judge faculty evaluation in terms of absolutes. Since evaluation techniques and procedures for faculty evaluation are less than perfect, they would throw out any advancements that could be made. This is an idealistic-and-unrealistic-position."

Fear of Student Evaluation as a Major Component in Advisor Evaluation

Related to the previous issue is a concern expressed by some faculty regarding the reliance on student evaluation or ratings of advisor performance. How do we know, they ask, that those advisors who receive the highest ratings by students are, in fact, the best advisors?

Before addressing this question directly, it may be helpful to examine the four possibilities that exist for evaluation of individual advisor performance. They are: self-evaluation; advising coordinator/director evaluation; peer review; and student evaluation. Although all of these can make a contribution to the evaluation process, advisee evaluation is the most direct and useful.

Figure 8 reports the extent to which these four evaluation techniques were used for faculty advisors.

Figure 8

Methods for Evaluating Advisors

Method	Two-Year Public			Two-Year Private			Four-Year Public			Four-Year Private			Total		
	All	Some	No	All	Some	No	All	Some	No	All	Some	No	All	Some	No
Student Evaluation	21.2	33.3	45.5	57.1	14.3	28.6	10.3	52.9	36.8	29.0	29.9	41.1	23.2	36.6	40.2
Self-Evaluation	16.7	30.3	53.0	14.3	35.7	50.0	14.7	38.2	47.1	14.0	31.8	54.2	14.7	33.9	51.4
Supervisory Performance Review	22.7	44.0	33.3	42.9	0.0	57.1	23.5	53.0	23.5	25.2	37.4	37.4	22.0	44.8	33.2
Peer Review	4.5	9.1	86.4	7.1	14.3	78.6	1.5	32.3	66.2	4.7	18.7	76.6	3.9	20.4	75.7

Although none of the methods appears to be widely used, the two most common methods employed by all institutions are supervisory performance review and student evaluation. In neither case, however, did the percentage of institutions reporting use of these two methods in all departments on campus exceed 25 percent. Peer review, a method common in general faculty evaluation, was the least used of the four evaluation methods (Habley, Crockett, and Cowart, 1987).

Self-evaluation of advising effectiveness can be most helpful if the primary purpose is formative. Advisors can obviously benefit from regularly assessing their advising performance. The University of Nebraska developed an Advisor Checklist which can be a useful self-evaluation tool. (Crockett, 1987; p. 416-418). Self-ratings of advising are not recommended when the purpose of the evaluation is summative. It is human nature to have a tendency toward a slightly inflated perception of abilities. This appears to be true when it comes to self-ratings of teaching and advising performance. Grites (1981, p. 32), in a study comparing student ratings of teachers/advisors with self-ratings concluded, "Faculty members rated themselves similarly in their roles as teachers and advisors, although students did not rate them the same. This suggests a kind of halo effect in faculty self-concepts and self-ratings of their performance in student-related functions."

Supervisory or peer performance review of advising effectiveness can also be fraught with difficulty. Those involved in the evaluation of advisors should have more than hearsay evidence, anecdotal references, and second-hand knowledge to conduct advisor evaluation. The major problem with these methods is that direct observation of advising behaviors is neither possible nor desirable. Perceptions of

advisors' competency are too frequently based on incidental situations that may come to the attention of the supervisor. Those responsible for evaluating advisors need a more systematic and reliable source of information about actual advisor performance.

This leaves student evaluation as the most practical and systematic method of evaluating the effectiveness of individual advisors. This is because advisees are in a direct relationship with their advisor and experience the actual advising session and all its behavioral elements. In short, they are the primary recipients of the services and, therefore, in the best position to render an impression of advisor effectiveness.

A great deal is known about the use of student ratings in faculty evaluation. Cashin (1983, p. 57) points out that "the research on student ratings is extensive; in volume, it probably equals all the research on the other sources of information used to evaluate faculty performance."

Braskamp, Brandenburg, and Ory (1984, p. 44-45) provide an excellent summary of the research on factors influencing student ratings of instruction. It is possible that some of these findings can be generalized to student ratings of advisors. Selding (1980), in a national survey, found that over one-half of the private and public colleges used sent student rating to evaluate teaching. In these institutions, at least, student ratings of advisors should not meet much faculty resistance. Cashin (1983, p. 64) presents the following convincing case for the use of student ratings:

> Student rating data, like every other source of information used to evaluate faculty, have limitations. There are ways to compensate for most of these limitations. Using student rating data in conjunction with other sources of information is certainly the first. This writer is convinced that we should use the data we have, even with the problems. Evaluations are made anyway; people are rehired and given salary increases. We can either take a close look at the data used and try to make adjustments for the limitations, or we can ignore the problems as we have in the past and make judgments based upon far more incomplete and flawed data. There is, of course, a third solution: Higher education can stop hiring, promoting, granting tenure, or paying raises until a perfect way to evaluate faculty has been found.

Lack of Tangible Recognition/Reward System Tied Directly to the Evaluation of Individual Advisor Performance

Good advising--like good teaching, publishing, and research--needs to be rewarded. If advising is to be rewarded, it must first be evaluated. Evaluation programs are more likely to garner faculty support and acceptance if those being

evaluated can see a direct link between the results of the evaluation program and the institutional recognition/reward program.

The type of reward system employed for advising at a given institution is closely related to the importance placed on advising at that institution. Although it is important not to overlook the intrinsic rewards an advisor may find in helping students, lack of some type of tangible reward system can impede effective advising. Administrators may reinforce good advising by a variety of means, including extra compensation, reduction in workload, paid in-service training, consideration of advising effectiveness in promotion/tenure decisions, and awards or other forms of public recognition. If advising is an agreed-upon responsibility, then it should be a factor in evaluation of the individual and recognized in decisions of salary, promotion, tenure, etc.

Many dedicated advisors experience intrinsic reward as a result of their advising role. Hackman and Oldham (1980) have identified three pleasurable psychological states that may be associated with increases in positive affect as a result of the faculty member's advising experience. They are a person's experience of the meaningfulness of work attempted, responsibility for work outcomes, and knowledge of results obtained. However valuable such intrinsic rewards may be to the individual, the function of advising is too critical to be left solely to those who intrinsically cherish it.

Recognition for outstanding advising can take such forms as an advisor of the year award, an advisor banquet, advisor appreciation days, feature stories on advisors in the school newspaper or alumni magazine, etc.

To address the lack of a tangible recognition and reward system for advising on many campuses, The American College Testing Program (ACT) and the National Academic Advising Association (NACADA) introduced the National Recognition Program for Academic Advising in 1983-84. Awards are presented annually to individual advisors nominated by their institutions who have demonstrated the qualities associated with outstanding academic advising of students. The goal of the program is to encourage wider institutional support and recognition of the importance of academic advising.

While intrinsic rewards and incentives such as award programs are viable elements in an overall institutional recognition/reward program for advisors, there must be more extrinsic rewards such as reductions in instructional and noninstructional load, additional compensation, merit pay increases, and the recognition of advising efforts in promotion and tenure decisions.

Kramer (1981) reminds those responsible for developing advisor recognition/reward programs of Maslow's admonition that a carrot-and-stick approach to motivation does not work well for professionals who have reached personally rewarding levels of achievement. Generally, professionals are mo-

tivated by the higher-level needs of autonomy, achievement, confidence, status, recognition, and self-fulfillment.

Implementing An Evaluation Program

Instrument Development or Selection

Institutions may choose to develop their own evaluative instrument, borrow an instrument developed by another institution, or use a national standardized instrument. Each approach has advantages and disadvantages. For example, locally developed instruments ensure "ownership" and may assess local objectives and concerns more completely. On the other hand, the developmental process can be time consuming and little may be known about the validity or reliability of the instrument. Borrowing from another institution can accelerate the process and avoid the "reinventing the wheel" syndrome that can occur when starting from scratch. Borrowed instruments, like local ones, lack a wide research base or any normative data for comparative purposes. National standardized advising evaluation instruments have the distinct advantages of broad institutional acceptance and use, accompanying data analysis services, availability of normative data, and assured technical quality. Three such standardized instruments are currently available: Survey of Academic Advising, The American College Testing Program, Iowa City, IA; Academic Advising Inventory, Student Development Associates, Athens, GA; and Advising Survey, Center of Faculty Evaluation and Development, Manhattan, KS.

The ACT Survey of Academic Advising is the most widely accepted and used advising evaluation instrument. A copy of this instrument may be found in Chapter 3. The opportunity to add 30 items of local interest to the standardized items combines the best of locally and nationally developed instruments. The instrument contains the following sections:

Section I: Background Information. This section covers demographics, primary purpose for attending your institution, current enrollment status, number of hours per week the student is currently employed, residence classification, overall college grade point average, current college residence, college major, and primary academic advisor.

Section II: Advising Information. Section II items involve such information as how well the student's needs are being met, type of academic advisor student has, student input in selection of current advisor, and length of time student has had current advisor.

Section III: Academic Advising Needs. Items in Section III cover the topics discussed with the advisor and provide an evaluation of the student's level of satisfaction with the advisor's assistance. Examples

of some topics referenced include scheduling, meeting graduation requirements, clarifying life/career goals, dealing with personal problems, and improving study skills.

Section IV: Impressions of the Academic Advisor. The 36 items in Section IV include such matters as: the advisor knows who I am, the advisor expresses interest in me as a unique individual, the advisor allows sufficient time to discuss issues or problems, the advisor is approachable and easy to talk to, etc.

Section V: Additional Advising Information. Section V items are concerned with changes in advisors, reason for the most recent change of advisor, how often the student met with the advisor during the past year, whether the number of meetings was sufficient to meet the student's needs, how much time is spent in each meeting with the advisor, etc.

Section VI: Additional Questions. This unique feature provides an opportunity for you to add as many as 30 additional twelve-response questions to explore areas of special local concern and facilitate in-depth evaluation of specific areas of interest.

Section VII: Comments and Suggestions. This closing section provides an open-ended opportunity for the student to express opinions and feelings not covered in the formal survey.

When the instruments are scored by ACT, institutions receive a report based on up to 15 student subgroups selected by the institution and extensive frequency data for all the survey items. By using a special advisor code number, the survey may be used for individual advisor evaluation, as well as for overall program evaluation.

Regardless of the approach taken to instrument development or selection, it is well to remember that, although efforts to improve the technical quality of the information collected are important, most evaluation is a somewhat subjective process.

Data Gathering

To ensure that the results of any evaluation effort are as representative and valid as possible, consideration must be given to how and when the data will be collected. When evaluating the overall advising program, a sampling of advisee, advisor, and administrative input will probably suffice. However, when evaluating individual advisor performance, it is obviously desirable to have the most complete results possible. Making advisor evaluation a part of the registration

process or providing for administration during a common class period will often result in the most complete data collection.

Feedback

A final, and sensitive, consideration in developing and implementing an advising evaluation program is the matter of providing individual advisors with appropriate feedback. Personal communication of results by a departmental administrator in an annual review has been rated as especially effective by faculty because it provides opportunities for a faculty member to respond to an evaluation (Braskamp, Fowler, Ory, 1984). Advisors should be provided with their own results and, if possible, a mean or average "score" for each item for the total advisor group. This not only lets each advisor determine areas which are strong or need to be strengthened, but also allows for comparative performance data for all advisors on campus.

Feedback on performance as an advisor can result in desired behavioral changes if certain conditions exist. The advisor must see change as necessary and desirable. He or she must accept the validity of the evaluation criteria, and have an intrinsic desire to improve. There must also be some form of tangible, external reward system. McKeachie (1982) states that feedback to faculty is more likely to produce change if they receive information that provides new insights, if they are motivated to change, and if they receive information about alternative ways to behave. Fitzgerald and Grafton (1981) found that faculty indicated changes in teaching methodology were often the result of student evaluations. In the final analysis, advisors who change in order to improve their competence as advisors do so more as a result of their genuine interest and dedication to being a good advisor than any other factor.

Overall Program Evaluation

All institutions should conduct an overall program evaluation every two or three years. Some of the resources that can be applied singly or in combination in this process are discussed below.

External Consultant

Persons external to the campus political and power structure can often be helpful in assisting institutions to look objectively at their total advising program. These advising "experts" can be engaged to analyze the strengths and weaknesses of the advising program and make recommendations for improvements.

The consultative process generally involves the collection and analysis by the consultant of information pertinent to the institution's advising program. The

consultant will wish to review all institutional documents and studies related to advising and results of any surveys of advisee perceptions of advising and to interview selected administrators, advisors, and students. The major weakness of external consultants is often the limited time available to conduct an in depth analysis of the advising program. An institution should assure itself the desired outcome can be accomplished within the limits of time and resources available before retaining a consultant.

Those considering the use of external consultants will find Lippitt and Lippitt (1978) and Pilon and Berquist (1979) helpful in determining the role and function of advising consultants. Young (1984) emphasizes that, in selecting a consultant, knowledge and expertise in academic advising is not enough to make a successful consultant. The consultant must be able to perform the difficult catalyst role of assisting others in analyzing their advising program and addressing its flaws. The bottom-line criteria of consultant success is whether or not a consultant can effect institutional change by persuading others to implement the recommendations made.

Institutions seeking well-qualified external consultants may wish to contact the National Academic Advising Association (NACADA) which maintains a Consultant Bureau to provide assistance to institutions at a reasonable cost. The ACT National Center also engages in a limited number of campus-based advising consultations each year. In retaining an external consultant it is important to clearly state the focus or purposes of the consultation and be certain that all involved have an understanding of the expected outcomes.

Campus Task Force or Study Group

Another popular approach to program evaluation is the appointment of an internal task group to study the overall effectiveness of the advising program and make suggestions for correcting observed weaknesses. Such a group should consist of advisors, administrators, and students and be sanctioned at the highest administrative level. Haynes and McCauley (1987, p. 27-28) describe how this process worked at Ball State University:

> The task force was made up of faculty representatives from each college and several professional advisors. Six subcommittees, each chaired by an advisor and made up of both faculty and advisors, were established. Resource Acquisition considered all physical changes needed, including the development of a new, centrally located freshman advising unit and several adjunct advising centers. Evaluation/Reward dealt with such questions as: How should the program and advisors be evaluated? What reward, if any, should faculty receive for advising? Advisor Development worked to develop a comprehensive training program for all advisors, as well as a clear and thorough advisor handbook. Advisor Functions developed job descriptions for all positions

in the new program from secretaries to professional advisors. Information and Student Flow examined how a student would move through the new system (what paperwork would be needed, etc.) and developed flow charts. Student Handbook put together a comprehensive "guide to the system" to be given to every student.

Conclusion

Logan Wilson (1942, p. 112), more than 45 years ago, wrote "Indeed it is no exaggeration to say that the most critical problem confronted in the social organization of any university is the proper evaluation of faculty services." Today, many institutions are still seeking ways to evaluate that particular faculty service known as academic advising. Seldin (1987, p. 12) provides an important reminder when he states that "performance appraisal is an art involving value judgements. That is why there is no perfect system of evaluating..., nor can there be one. But, given enough time, effort, and good will, we can come reasonably close."

This chapter has examined those elements important to the development and implementation of an effective advising evaluation program. Finally, as with any beneficial activity, the creative adaptation of the ideas contained in this chapter will require receptivity to new approaches, willingness to change, and some plain hard work. Everyone wants to improve, but not many are willing to change. Those responsible for developing an advising evaluation/reward program should not become discouraged at the first sign of resistance. Kramer and Gardner (1978, p. 1.143) have observed that "whether drawing on data generated by advisees, self-reports of advisors, advisor colleagues, the advising coordinator or on data drawn from other aspects of the institution, evaluative judgements cannot escape the twin perils of subjectivity, and continuation of value. All data must either originate with persons and thus be subject to their biases or be summarized and interpreted by those who espouse certain categories of values and, therefore, importance. This truism is not to suggest that assessment should not be attempted, but rather to assure the reader that all attempts at assessment will be met and accompanied by dissenting voices questioning any and all aspects of the assessment process."

CHAPTER 9

Concerning Changes in Advising

Sara C. Looney

A Fable

Once upon a time a young princess of great beauty and extraordinary intelligence was coming of age to learn to rule. She was surrounded with fine teachers--the best in the realm. Their mission was to transform this talented young woman in four short years into a worthy monarch. She started her training enthusiastic and eager to learn. On her first day of monarchy school she went to the most senior looking of her teachers and said, "Tell me about my training--what should I expect?" He looked perplexed. "Well, milady, in my session you will learn how to balance your crown. That's particularly important you know."

"Of course," replied the princess, "It would be upsetting to both me and my people if I were presiding at some important function and my crown fell off. But what else will I learn?"

"Well," replied the sage, "I teach only crown balancing. Perhaps you should ask someone else."

The princess dropped a royal curtsey in his direction, looked around the princess training room, and spied a fairly wise looking woman. Our princess thought, "Certainly a woman will be a better advisor than that myopic old man. She'll clear things up for me." So the princess walked, well, really it was more like hopping and skipping, toward the wise looking woman.

"I'm just so excited about starting princess training. It's really neat," she exclaimed. "Would you sort of just help me get an idea of what to expect? I'd like to be up for it."

The wise looking woman's face changed so that she looked somewhat like the prunes the palace cook dried each summer on the battlements. From between what appeared to be locked jaws, she replied, "One thing you'll learn, young lady, is that valley princesses use terms like 'neat' and 'sort of just' and 'be up,' but it is not done here."

The princess seriously considered turning the wise looking prune into a toad, but remembered that she was a princess, not a witch, and went back to her search for information about princess training. She did, however, make a mental note to consult the court wizard on the subject of turning people into toads.

She spied a benevolent looking man across the room and walked in his direction with much less enthusiasm, certainly not hopping and skipping.

"Please tell me about my training program. What will I learn? Why? When? What will I be like after princess training? Will I compare well with other princesses?"

Sage III smiled indulgently, thinking to himself, this princess asks entirely too many questions. "My princess, you know we will only teach you good and useful things. No need for you to bother understanding how, what, or why. We know--and we'll do what is best for you."

Now good princesses are, of course, docile and gracious. Our particular princess, however, concealed beneath a demure exterior, curiosity that would not be squelched, plus a low tolerance for fools. In fact, she had dismissed her jester for good when she was only three years old.

She dropped another curtsey, followed by just the slightest flounce, and began to search the room with a sceptical glance. She thought, "I'll give this one more princessly shot before I give them all a royal pain."

She picked another teacher of the theory and skill of being a monarch and walked determinedly toward him. He had been watching the princess as she questioned the other teachers, and managed to dodge behind one of the large pillars that held the roof. The princess was young but fairly astute. She surmised very quickly that she was being avoided. Other sages in the room avoided meeting her glance; they looked at the floor or ceiling with profound concentration.

The princess decided that enough was too much. She became thoroughly disenchanted with princess training and ran away to become a university student in another kingdom.

Changing The Advising System

If they heard it, many students on campus would agree that this fable is more fact than fiction. Studies on student perceptions of advising frequently reveal dissatisfaction. Like the fabled princess, students report that advisors focus too narrowly on registration matters, that advisors don't understand today's student, that advisors are condescendingly parental and that advisors are inaccessible. In fact, dissatisfaction with advising has been cited as one of the factors that correlates most significantly with student attrition.

Many advisors also are aware of deficits in the advising system. It seems safe to assume that most people whose work relates to academic advising, certainly those who are interested enough to read this monograph, see a need for change in the delivery of advising.

We can address change in several ways, ranging from the completely theoretical to the practical. This chapter on change will be practical, dipping into treatises on theoretical change for major principles, but then applying these principles to the practical problems of making changes in academic advising programs.

The first truism about change that applies to advising is that change is inevitable. Changes in advising will occur, whether planned or unplanned. Higher education is in a constant process of flux, with new areas of knowledge opening at an accelerated pace, new instructional methods developing, and more students from diverse backgrounds entering colleges. Certainly all student services, including the content and process of advising, will be affected and altered. The changing environment of higher education demands that advising keep pace.

The second postulate concerning change that applies to advising is that one has several options to exercise in responding to change. One can ignore change, though that will not keep it from occuring. One can passively accept the effects of change, neither fighting it nor participating in it. One can participate actively in change, or one can choose to actually initiate change. Advisors, faculty, and administrators concerned with advising have this option: they can plan change and be part of it or they can react to it as it occurs. As Rosabeth Moss Kanter (1983, p. 64) states in The Change Master, "...change can be either friend or foe, depending on the resources available to cope with it and master it by innovating. It is disturbing when it is done to us, exhilarating when it is done by us."

Planning Changes in Advising

How can an individual or a group concerned with improving the advising system convince others to join in the change process?

More than most functions and services in colleges and universities, the service of academic advising spans many boundaries, involving every student in the institution, many faculty members, academic administrators, and often professional and paraprofessional staff. Because the constituencies involved in the delivery of advising are so large and disparate, changes in the advising system cannot be initiated in a fragmented way. If the changes are to permeate the system and endure through time, every segment of the educational community must be involved in the change process.

David Bushnell (1973), in Organizing for Change, advocates the problem-solving model of planning change as an effective model for higher education. The problem-solving model promotes broad participation, is systematic, and can

function effectively in an arena where consideration of human relations is critical. There are six steps in Bushnell's problem-solving model:

1. Diagnosing the problem.
2. Formulating objectives and criteria of effectiveness.
3. Identifying constraints and needed resources.
4. Selecting potential solutions.
5. Evaluating these alternative solutions, and
6. Implementing the selected alternatives within the college system.

Each step will be discussed along with applications pertinent to implementing changes in advising.

Before employing the above problem-solving model, it is necessary to identify those in the college community who are involved in or affected by the advising process. This group should include, as a minimum, faculty, administrators and students. It may also include professional advisors, counselors and student services personnel. And, if there is an intention to assess outcomes, the group should probably include someone from institutional research.

This group should be involved in the first step of the change process, diagnosing the problem. In fact, since it is probably impossible for any constituency to understand the problem exactly as another group sees it, the axiom "the more the merrier" applies. Meeting face to face to diagnose the problem is preferable, but may not be practical. One way to gain broad input in the diagnosis stage is to use the review techniques provided in David Crockett's Academic Advising Audit (1987) or the Council for the Advancement of Standard's (CAS) Self-Study Guide for Academic Advising Standards and Guidelines (1986). Additionally, a survey of faculty and student attitudes toward advising can provide useful input in the diagnosis stage. Several of these assessment survey techniques are described in the previous chapter.

Once such data is gathered, it is possible to understand existing problems more thoroughly. Some of the more common problems which surface in advising audits are 1) accessibility and availability of advisors, 2) the lack of timely and accurate information, 3) too many students per advisor, and 4) advisors' lack of concern for the student. At this stage, it may be preferable to reduce the size of the initial group so that, while still being representative of diverse constituencies, a smaller task force can be formed to articulate and begin addressing the problem identified in the diagnosis stage.

This task force should be charged with formulating objectives and determining the criteria for effectiveness. Objectives should be stated in operational terms: what will measurably or observably differ after change has been effected? A quality

objective should meet at least three criteria: 1) it should include a time frame for accomplishment; 2) it should specify an action; and 3) it should include a measurable outcome. Returning briefly to our introductory fable, the statement "Someday my prince will come" hardly meets the criteria for an effective objective. On the other hand, if an objective in improving advising relates to increasing the number of students who actually see advisors each term, an objective which meets each of the three criteria could be, "Seventy percent of advisors report that they have held advising sessions with seventy percent of their advisees during the fall term."

The academic advising standards and guidelines published in CAS Standards and Guidelines for Student Services/Development Programs (1986) provide a summary of practices that characterize adequate academic advising programs. Study of these statements by the task force will assist in the development of objectives which most accurately represent the needs of a particular campus.

The third step in planning change is identifying constraints and necessary resources. This step involves reality testing. Many change strategies fail because they are planned as though they will be implemented in a closed system. In reality, changes in academic advising can send ripples thoughout the campus community. Advising is a part of a much larger and open system. According to David Bushnell (1973), constraints and resources are considerations which "tend to operate as two sides of the same coin." He (p.80) suggests that constraints and resources can have a positive or negative impact on change. These constraints and resources include:

- Human considerations (attitudes, experiences, aptitudes, and limitations).
- Laws and regulations (in the case of advising change, this might involve academic policies and regulations).
- Financial considerations.
- Timing considerations.
- Demographic considerations.
- Facilities considerations.

A consideration might act as both a constraint and a resource. For example, faculty members may consider advising to be part of their responsibility and prerogative (resource) but as a result of this attitude, constrain the system from using other types of personnel to supplement advising. Needless to say, a planned change that is congruent with existing attitudes will be easier to implement than one which requires changing attitudes. Under most circumstances, however, the diversity of constituencies involved virtually requires the task force leader to negotiate, to forge concensus where none seems to exist, to seek a middle ground.

After identifying the problem, establishing a task force or work group, developing objectives and considering both constraints and resources, the work group can move on to identify potential solutions. In the field of advising, a large body of literature has developed in the last decade, much of it action-oriented, describing current practices in delivery of advising services. Among items worth reviewing are issues of the NACADA Journal and the NACADA Newsletter. Another collection of proven strategies is in the ACT/NACADA publications, The Award Winners. Award winning programs from these collections are summarized in the next chapter of this monograph.

Participation in a national or regional advising conference will also provide many ideas and some transferable models for advising programs. Another low cost way to get ideas for possible solutions to advising problems is to visit nearby colleges and universities. Most institutions have some programs or parts of programs which work, and usually are replete with individuals who have war stories about what seems not to work. Task force members can learn from both the successes and failures of other institutions.

In reviewing possible solutions, the task force can move from an open ended technique such as brainstorming, where everyone puts ideas on the table without evaluation, to identifying preferable alternatives through concensus generating techniques.

After identifying an array of potential solutions, the task force should turn its attention to evaluating those alternatives. The criteria for evaluation will bring the group back to the objectives developed earlier. Each solution should be related to the objective developed earlier in the process. Assessing solutions in terms of constraints and resources will also help the group determine which are most feasible and likely to be effective.

At one institution, a faculty governing body attempting to improve advising legislated that each student who had reached junior standing would be required to see an advisor and to fill out a proposed graduation plan before being allowed to register for subsequent semesters. This legislation was based, in part, on the assumption that computer generated degree audits were going to be developed by the time the policy took effect. However, due to a variety of intervening disasters, the computer assisted degree audits did not materialize in a timely fashion. And, as a result, the objective of delivering more systematic and accurate advising was not met. The faculty failed to conduct a thorough review of the possible constraints.

The final step in implementing change is converting the proposed solutions to action. This may be the hardest step. But if the previously described participative problem solving techniques have been employed, there should be widespread concensus supporting the proposed changes. The task force at this stage will develop a realistic timetable for implementation and design a plan for evaluating and modifying the proposed solutions if necessary. Systematic

evaluation of interim progress toward a more long term goal will enable the task force to nurture the change project.

Bushnell's model for change is, in a sense, a macro or system-wide view of accomplishing change in campus academic advising services. Because advising is conducted by so many individuals within an institution, it is also important to review change at the micro level; that is, to elaborate on the individual advisor's role in the change process. Even though many advisors feel somewhat disenfranchised from the process which brings about meaningful campus-wide changes, they can have an impact as agents for change. The following section examines three change agent roles that may be played by advisors.

Advisors As Change Agents

Advisors As Bellwethers: Advisors, both professional advisors and faculty advisors, are uniquely suited to act as change agents. Advisors frequently serve as the first and most continuous contact between students and the institution. Because of their frequent interaction with students, advisors can be the bellwethers of change in student populations. Daily contact with students of all ages from varying socioeconomic backgrounds and with diverse ability levels provides experiential information about changes in clientele long before such change are noted in the literature.

Recently, I met with a group of faculty to discuss the characteristics of students at our institution. Instead of going through demographic and student profile information, I pulled together characteristics describing college students nationally. I included Astin's findings on the shift in the past twenty years from concern with developing a meaningful philosophy of life to being preoccupied with making money. This information intrigued the faculty members present. Many professors, including some who had been teaching for nearly twenty years, reported that they were aware students worked longer hours, preferred application over theory, and had shifted from majors in the liberal arts to majors in business and computer science. They intuitively sensed a change but had not verbalized it, or even trusted their intuition, until they saw empirical evidence. The notion, the feeling, the intuition about change in this generation of college students needed to be made apparent to them. Some reported considering what changes in instruction seemed appropriate to respond to what they perceived as changed student behavior: did it make sense to lessen their expectations of what students should learn, of how much students should be expected to do outside of class time, to try to attach a practical, career-based reason for learning in every class?

The instructors, many of whom also served as departmental academic advisors, observed the changes in students because they interact with them on a daily basis. They saw changes in behavior, and correctly interpreted changed behavior as stemming from changed attitudes. But in most colleges and universities, faculty seldom have the opportunity to engage in such organized dialogue about

students. The faculty members I spoke with did not know that their collegues had observed the same behaviors, nor were they aware of nationwide trends.

For advisors to act successfully as bellwethers, then, they must get together periodically and share their perceptions of students' needs and attitudes. Professional advisors may observe one set of phenomenon while faculty advisors may note certain other behaviors. By meeting periodically to review changing student characteristics advisors can foresee changes in students and position themselves to deal with them. They can also serve as prophets for changes that may occur in higher education, sharing with the broader educational community insights developed from interactions with a broad consitutuency of students. Most importantly, as first hand observers of student change, advisors are well placed to be change agents in higher education, to alert others to needed changes before a crisis occurs.

Advisors As Integrators: Peter Garland (1985) in Serving More Than Students; A Critical Need For College Student Personnel Services, challenges student affairs professionals to act as agents of change by being the integrators within institutions. With only slight modification, his recommendations can apply equally well to advisors. He advises us to assess the institutional environment. Advisors who would promote change must also engage in reconnaisance. They are in a unique position to survey the landscape. Advisors see the effects of policy, procedures, and decisions on both students and other facets of the institution. Students and "the system" often meet face-to-face, if not head-to-head, in an advisor's office. For example, in many institutions, students lose significant credits when transfering between academic units, each of which mandates idiosyncratic general education requirements. Faculty and professional advisors who work with students who change programs are in a position to assess the effects of these differing requirements on students.

At one institution, a university committee composed of faculty representives from each college was charged with evaluating current requirements for general education and determining whether or nor revisions in those requirements were needed. At their first meetings the committee examined the general education requirements which were highly variable across majors. It soon became apparent that the only course which was a universal requirement for every student was a freshman composition course. This did not disturb the faculty committee greatly; each school and college seemed to have compelling reasons for creating a separate list of general education courses required of their students.

A simultaneous effort was undertaken by the professional advisors on that campus to develop a schema for use in advising students uncertain about their majors or those considering a change of major. The advisors knew from their experience with these students that students sometimes lost a good bit of credit if they changed from a professional major such as engineering to a liberal arts major such as English.

As the professional advisors continued to search for similarities between and among curricula, it became apparent that the similarities were masked by requirements for very specific courses. For example, one college might require a specific social science course, while another allowed students to choose from a menu of social science courses. The advisors finally compiled a report composed of both anecdotal evidence from student advising interviews and an analysis of catalog requirements which underscored the difficulties of students trying to transfer between schools and colleges. They also presented data which showed that one-third of the freshman entering the university were undecided about a major, and that another third changed majors at least once before graduation. This meant that varying general education requirements would affect about two-thirds of each entering freshman class.

The faculty committee reviewed the advisors' findings and became convinced that revisions in the general education requirements were necessary. Such revisions resulted in the development of a common core of general education courses that would meet requirements throughout the institution. The professional advisors were asked to submit regular studies of this type to the faculty curriculum committee. Because this group of advisors integrated faculty and student concerns, general education requirements were improved, the problems of students were addressed and the university community recognized that advisors were experts on the effects of curricular requirements on students. An analysis of the fiscal cost to both the institution and the state caused by students "losing" credit in internal transfer might also have been done.

Advisors As Boundary Spanners: Garland (1985, p. 108) also advises student affairs professionals to "develop professional credibility with faculty" and to "become experts on students, their expectations, needs, interests, and abilities." Those who promote change in advising services must be aware of the attitudes and interests of faculty colleagues. And to span boundaries, change agents must use this awareness to construct persuasive arguments for change. Most advisors have a collection of "war stores" that could fill several volumes. These stories have value if used as anecdotal evidence of student progress through the institution or lack thereof. But anecdotal information alone will rarely substantiate a need for change. Research, historical or empirical, can bolster the assertion that change is needed.

In Chapter 3 of this monograph, Julie Noble discusses students' perceptions of academic advising as measured by the ACT Survey of Academic Advising. Similar data, gathered from a survey of one's own institution, and compared to the national norms of the ACT survey, might be used to demonstrate that some change is needed and could even assist in identifying components in the advising system that should be changed.

Two additional Garland (1985, pp. 108-109) dictums apply to advisors who would be change agents. He advises student affairs professionals to "translate student

affairs goals to others in the institution in meaningful terms" and to "contribute to the effective and efficient management of institutions." For advisors, this advice paraphrased could be: one role for advisors is to translate advising goals to others in the institution in meaningful terms in order to contribute to the effective and efficient management of institutions.

Because advisors are likely to be the first to see the effects on students of a variety of policies and practices, and because they are the only individuals who come continually into contact with the breadth and depth of those effects, the role of boundary spanner is a critical role in the change process. The boundary-spanning advisor is in the unique position of representing the institution to the student and representing the student to the institution.

Indeed advisors can act as change agents in the enhancement of advising services. They can serve as bellwethers who forecast changes in student populations; as integrators who draw attention to the impact of those changes on the total university; and as boundary spanners who assist others in seeing the need for change.

Conclusion

The princess of our fable had to leave her kingdom in order to find helpful advisors. Some students, frustrated with the information and guidance they receive, leave our colleges and universities. There has, however, been a groundswell of interest in advising within the last decade. Advisors and administrators can capitalize on this surge of interest to review advising policies and practices on their campus. If there is a need for improvement, change agents will find a participative change model, such as that outlined by Bushnell in Organizing For Change (1973) to be efficient and effective.

Advisors are critical elements in this change process because they have daily contact with students as those students interact with the university. They are ideally situated to assess the need for change. By acting as bellwethers, integrators and boundary changers, they can assist the institution in responding appropriately to an environment in which the only predictable constant is change.

CHAPTER 10

Exemplary Academic Advising Programs

Diana Saluri

Wesley R. Habley

As suggested in Chapter 1 of this monograph, the true measure of success in advising programs is not represented in national trend data reported in the ACT Third National Survey of Academic Advising. Rather, success should be viewed from the perspective of institutional achievements in academic advising, for it is at the institutional level that strategies are planned and implemented and where students accrue the benefits from outstanding academic advising.

In the fall of 1983, David S. Crockett of the American College Testing Program, proposed to the National Academic Advising Association (NACADA) Board a collaborative effort to identify and recognize significant institutional achievements in academic advising through a national awards program. The NACADA Board unanimously approved the collaboration, and beginning in the fall of 1984, the first ACT/NACADA Award Winners were presented at the National NACADA Conference in Philadelphia. The annual program was organized to recognize one program from each of NACADA's seven institutional type affiliations. In addition, certificates of merit were presented to other deserving institutions. Although the recognition program also included awards for outstanding advisors, only the institutional awards summaries are presented in this chapter.

The remaining portion of this chapter is devoted to brief synopses of each of the 71 institutional award winners from 1984 through 1987. In each synopsis, we have attempted to capture the key features of the program. More extensive program descriptions are included in the publication The Award Winners produced annually for the national NACADA conference and distributed at the conference each year. It is possible that additional information on these exemplary programs can be obtained through the contact person listed for each institution, although we would caution that personnel changes may have taken place since the descriptions were submitted.

The programs are presented alphabetically by institution within each of three institutional types: two-year institutions, four-year public institutions, and four-year private institutions.

Four - Year Public Institutions

Ball State University, 1987

Under a new centrally administered advising program designed to give some freedom of implementation to the colleges and departments, freshmen are advised by professional advisors, and sophomores who have chosen a major by faculty advisors. All faculty advisors are given personal computers wired to the mainframe to help in advising. A computerized degree audit was also developed to free faculty from manual paperwork chores. To facilitate communication throughout campus, several adjunct advising centers were established. They are staffed by one professional advisor and located in academic buildings in prominent locations.

Contact: Michael Haynes, Director of Academic Advising; Michael McCauley, Coordinator of Instructional and Advising Support Systems

Central Missouri State University, 1985

With a goal of improved retention, this totally centralized advising system, which employs eight full-time advisors and a full-time advising director, is aimed at individualizing advising. Among program enhancements are: 1) identification of faculty willing to serve as resource advisors; 2) a more comprehensive utilization of ACT Assessment data; 3) increased length of advisor appointment times; 4) increased utilization of computers; 5) completion of an academic progress report for each student; and 6) a comprehensive evaluation program.

Contact: Keith Stumpf, Acting Provost

Cleveland State University College of Arts and Sciences, 1987

To support a university-wide effort to improve retention, the advising unit of the College of Arts and Sciences developed the following programs: mandatory advising for freshmen, transfer students and students on probation; required advising sessions for students who receive academic warnings; identifying and advising freshmen who have enrolled in advanced level courses; exit interviews for dismissed students, and support letters to students who are improving their academic performance. Instructors in freshmen level courses also administer a graded assignment at the end of the third week of class and report grades to the advising office.

Contact: John W. Lallo, Associate Dean

Eastern Illinois University, 1984

Developed a comprehensive Academic Assistance Center providing advising for all new students, all undecided students, students awaiting admission to the College of Business, developmental needs students, and honors students. Other features of the Center include the development of an Academic Advisement Handbook for faculty advisors, community college outreach by Center advisors, and direct involvement in planning the orientation/pre-registration program.

Contact: Cal Campbell, Director, Academic Assistance Center

Eastern Michigan University, 1985

An Academic Services Center established in 1975 serves as the central focus of advising and supports the more decentralized advising services of majors in academic departments. Under a Faculty Advising Internship Program each semester two faculty members are awarded half-time appointments in the Academic Services Center. FAST TRACK, a one-day "consumer-oriented" orientation for prospective students and their parents, has also been implemented.

Contact: Ann C. Kettles, Assistant Director, Academic Services Center

Emporia State University, 1986

The Student Advising Center (SAC) is staffed by 13 faculty advisors, one from each division of the university which grants an undergraduate degree. Following an intrusive model of delivery, SAC advisors meet with advisees (all freshmen and undeclared students) at least twice a semester. Advisors also respond to Concern/Action Reports filled out by faculty with a concern about a particular student. The advisor contacts the student who then comes in to discuss the problem.

Contact: Faye Vowell, Director, Student Advising Center

George Mason University, 1986

The Academic Advising Center, operating under an intrusive philosophy, serves undeclared students, students who are changing majors, students who are qualifying for a major and preprofessional students. These students are contacted through mailings at six to eight critical points each semester. The Center also works closely with the Admissions Office during orientation and produces publications such as a monthly newsletter for faculty advisors, an advisors' handbook, and a new student information envelope.

Contact: Sara C. Looney, Director, Advising Center and Orientation

Iowa State University, 1984

Implemented a campus-wide system for coordinating academic advising on a large campus with 26,000 students and nine colleges. Each college establishes advising policies through a College Advising Committee comprised of faculty, staff advisors and usually students. The University Academic Advising Committee, comprised of faculty, students and representatives from a variety of support service offices, is responsible for campus-wide coordination of advising services. Program features advisor training, a comprehensive advisor information network, advisor recognition, and peer advising.

Contact: Phyllis Brackelsburg, Chair of University Academic Advising Committee; Ruth Swenson, Assistant Dean, College of Sciences and Humanities

Kennesaw College, 1987

To create a greater sense of identity with the institution and to take advising beyond scheduling, this commuter school established a new advising program for undeclared students. Letters of welcome are sent to all new students explaining the program. Twenty-four students act as peer advisors during orientation and registration and seven serve on an on-going orientation advisor group. Postcards notify students to sign up for advising appointments each quarter. Each school hosts an information seminar to which all undeclared students are invited.

Contact: Nancy S. King, Acting Director of CAPS; Chuck Goodrum, Coordinator of Advisement

Kent State University, 1985

To provide honors students with periodic assessment of short and long term academic and career goals and promote discussion of related obstacles and problems, several advising initiatives have been undertaken. These include a freshman orientation week meeting and reception, meetings with seniors or faculty in particular majors, and a graduate studies information meeting each fall.

Contact: Helga Kaplan, Coordinator of Advising

McNeese State University, 1986

Established a Division of Basic Studies in 1979 which included a Director of Basic Studies and four academic advisors. Added to the Division at later dates were a clinical psychologist, a Coordinator of Special Services, and a Learning Disabilities Specialist. Purposes of the Division are: 1) to assure freshmen of greater accessibility to academic and vocational counseling, 2) to advise students who have declared a major, 3) to provide guidance and counseling for students who have not decided on a major, 4) to expose students to ways and means for developing the academic maturity needed for success at the institution.

Contact: Edward H. Khoury, Coordinator of Academic Advising, Division of Basic Studies; Raymond E. Chavanne, Director, Division of Basic Studies

Michigan State University, 1984

Established the Undergraduate University Division charged with eight major functions: 1) monitor the academic progress of all students enrolled in the division; 2) provide advising for undecided students; 3) provide back-up advising for students with declared majors; 4) maintain liaison with other advising centers and support services throughout the University; 5) provide support services for students with developmental reading and writing needs; 6) coordinate orientation placement testing program; 7) establish liaison with admissions office on orientation programs; and 8) assist provost's office in monitoring general education requirement.

Contact: Thomas C. Kishler, Associate Director of Undergraduate University Division

Missouri Western College, 1986

Charged with developing an effective and efficient system for advising and pre-registration, an eight member task force identified eight-major tasks: (1) development of materials to interface with preregistration software; (2) computerization of fee schedules; (3) forms of declaration of major; (4) securing faculty participation in designing advising procedures; (5) developing faculty inservice sessions; (6) computer training for the registrar's staff; (7) training of the admissions staff; and (8) development of computer printouts and informational handouts for faculty advisors and students.

Contact: George C. Matthews, Administrative Assistant to the Vice President for Academic Affairs

Ohio University, 1986

Developed an academic advising program for undecided students which is delivered by faculty. This approach is based on two principles: (1) that academic departments regard the advising service of their faculty to the university's undecided students as a service of equal importance to other forms of service faculty are expected to render, and (2) faculty should be drawn from each of the seven academic colleges. Although there is some criticism of the program on the part of students and faculty, the freshman-sophomore attrition rate has dropped from 36% to 26% since the inception of the program.

Contact: Samuel Crowl, Dean of University College; Richard Harvey, Assistant Dean of University College

Pan American University, 1984

Developed a three-tier program for academic advising. All freshmen are advised by qualified professional counselors and advisors in the freshman advising center through the completion of the freshman year. Following the conclusion of the second semester, students are advised by faculty in the interim advisement program. This program maintains advising responsibility until the student has completed 60 semester hours. The major department advisement program is responsible for advising juniors and seniors.

Contact: Lupita Cantu-Morse, Coordinator of LAC-Counseling/Advising Center

State University of New York At Oneonta, 1984

Developed an advising system featuring several unique activities. Freshmen who enter the institution with no declared majors are advised by residence hall directors and resident assistants. Once they declare a major, students are advised by faculty members. In addition, upon first enrollment, students are offered partial pre-set scheduling. That is, they are allowed to choose from approximately 20 pre-selected course combinations which are geared to their general areas of interest. Finally, the institution provides additional advising services for students with developmental needs, pre-professional students, and cooperative program candidates.

Contact: Carey W. Brush, Vice President for Academic Affairs; Emery L. Will, Director of Academic Advisement

SUNY College of Environmental Science and Forestry, 1987

As a transfer upper division institution, the college was experiencing a high attrition rate among students accepted under an Advanced Early Admissions Program (AEA) for high school students. To counter this, it established a Co-Advisor System in which faculty act as advisors to accepted AEA students while students are still in their lower division years at other colleges. Letters and telephone calls from these advisors provide prospective students with a personal contact months prior to their enrollment.

Contact: Dennis O. Stratton, Director of Admissions

Texas Tech University, 1986

The College of Engineering at Texas Tech undertook the development of a program to train engineering faculty in the mentoring process. Through a bi-weekly training program, volunteer faculty had the opportunity to learn counseling and listening skills to enhance their role as mentors. The mentoring program was extended to engineering students in academic difficulty. Faculty involved in the program were unilaterally positive about it.

Contact: Darrell L. Vines, Associate Dean/Professor

Utah State University, 1987

In an effort to provide students, faculty, and administrators with up-to-date academic information a comprehensive statement of philosophy for advising was developed. Based on this statement, the following informative materials were developed: a guide containing all academic policies and procedures; a brochure for high school students outlining admissions policies; a "Plan Now" sheet--an individual program of study and progress guide that can be adjusted to any major and used to monitor progress; a parent orientation session and handbook; and a newsletter for advisors and others.

Contact: Melvin H. Larsen, Associate Director, Academic Services; LaVell E. Saunders, Director, Academic Services; Val R. Christensen, Vice President for Student Services

University of California - Los Angeles, 1985

Undertook the comprehensive revision of academic support services for the more than 20,000 students enrolled in the University's College of Letters and Sciences. By consolidating the already existing, but independently operating, professional, peer, and graduate student counselors with the functions of orientation, academic assistance, and academic advising, the college was able to offer increased services within limited and existing resources.

Contact: Jane C. Muratore, Director of Counseling, College of Letters and Sciences Counseling Service; Sue Norton, Assistant Director, College of Letters and Sciences Counseling Service

University of Detroit, 1986

Under Project 100/Challenge special admissions students and their parents sign an agreement form requiring the student to spend a minimum of five hours weekly in the Developmental Learning Center. Free tutorial assistance is provided in the Center. Freshman attendance is tracked weekly and students are phoned at home when they have not met the five-hour minimum. After the freshmen year or when the student is judged to no longer need support, attendance at the Center is optional.

Contact: Daniel A. Felicetti, Vice president, Academic Affairs; Charles A. Dause, University Advising Coordinator

University of Hawaii - Manoa, 1984

Implemented the Hui Akane (a group of friends) peer advising program for the College of Arts and Sciences, which is the advising home for nearly one-half of the campus's 20,000 students. Peer advisors visit high schools and community colleges, participate in new student orientation programs, operate an advising center, and assist students in the program planning and registration processes. The program features a comprehensive, semester-long training program for peers. Goals and objectives of the program are systematically evaluated.

Contact: Beatrice Yamasaki, Dean of Arts and Sciences, Student Services and Special Programs; Ray L. McDonald, Assistant Vice Chancellor for Academic Programs

The University of Iowa, 1984

Established an Educational Advising Service as a resource center for adult students and prospective students. Goals of the program are: 1) to increase awareness of opportunities for continuing education; 2) to provide advising and support services to adult and/or part-time students; 3) to maintain contact with students and provide organizations, activities, and services which will increase their involvement with the university; and 4) to consult with faculty and staff to ensure that special needs of nontraditional students are being met. A significant feature of this program is that advising is accomplished in person, by mail, and by telephone.

Contact: Mary Hall, Educational Advisor; Susan Beadle, Educational Advisor

University of Missouri - Kansas City, 1984

Developed an Enrollment Services System which integrates admissions counseling, school relations, admissions, and academic advising functions by merging staffs from the Office of Admissions and the Office of Student Academic Support Services. By cross-training personnel from both offices, it is possible for a prospective student to be admitted, advised, and enrolled through one encounter with an Enrollment Services Officer. Cross-staf-

fing also provides staffing flexibility during peak periods for both the admissions and advising functions and advising consistency until students enter the upper division of the University.

Contact: Gary E. Widmar, Vice Chancellor for Student Affairs; Joan S. Sherwood, Assistant Vice Chancellor for Student Affairs

University, of North Florida, 1986

A centralized academic advising center was developed in the College of Education and Human Services. The purposes of the Center are to help undergraduate and graduate students explore career options, develop a program of study; obtain answers to questions about admission requirements and procedures, pick up needed forms, find help in solving problems, and learn about state teacher certification requirements. Center staff serve as primary advisors for all undergraduates and as "point-of-entry" advisors for graduate students.

Contact: Andrew A. Robinson, Dean of the College of Education and Human Services

University of Rhode Island, 1985

In an effort to involve faculty in advising initiatives for students with special needs, the following programs have been initiated: 1) a faculty mentor program for undeclared majors; 2) a credit-bearing University Communities course for freshmen in which faculty, staff, and upperclass students serve as the leaders in a two-semester exploration of the themes "You and Your University" and "Work, Leisure, and Human Values;" and 3) an Academic Counselors Program for Students subject to academic dismissal. In the Academic Counselors Program faculty are assigned five high risk students to work closely with during each semester.

Contact: Diane W. Trommer, Dean, University College and Special Academic Programs

University of South Florida, 1986

Advising on the campus is coordinated by a Council on Academic Advising which includes the advising coordinators from each undergraduate college, the division of undergraduate studies, and representatives from the regional campuses, and the offices of Admissions, Registrar and Community College Relations. Advising for exploratory/undecided students is provided by seven professional and six peer advisors serving approximately 7,000 undergraduate students.

Contact: Susan Fernandez, Academic Advisor, Undergraduate Studies

University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee, 1985

The Counseling and Advising Network is made up of academic advisors from the various schools and colleges along with representatives from departments in the Division of Student Affairs who perform counseling or advising functions, i.e. the registrar's office, the placement office and the foreign student office and others. The Network holds bi-weekly meetings and offers at least one in-service training

program a year for University personnel engaged in counseling and advising. It has become the single most effective method of developing campus wide commitment and cooperation in the delivery of student personnel services on campus.

Contact: Diane Miller, Assistant to the Dean, School of Social Welfare, Anne Parenteau, Advisor, Allied Health Professions; Eunice Thielen, Coordinator, Student Services, Nursing

University of Wisconsin-Stout, 1985

The Advisement Center--211 is a centralized advising center for the School of Home Economics. It is staffed by four advisors who coordinate career fairs, seminars designed for student retention, and training sessions for peer advisors and campus tour guides, operate an advising hotline and coordinate all brochures and promotions. Faculty within the school do not advise. Room 211 is a retention, recruitment and referral center that has become an integral part of the school and has improved retention.

Contact: Carolyn Barnhart, Assistant to the Dean, School of Home Economics, Jane Henderson, Staff Assistant

Western Kentucky University, 1985

Implemented an integrated model for academic advising, career guidance, and placement services in a unit called the CAP Center. The Center provides a comprehensive range of services for students and alumni including: 1) academic advising; 2) career counseling; 3) a career library; 4) a computerized employment matching service; 5) development of degree plans; 6) advising and counseling for transfer students; 7) advising for readmitted students; 8) counseling for students in academic difficulty; 9) career planning and placement speakers bureau; 10) placement counseling; and 11) delivery of an educational and career planning course.

Contact: Jerry R. Wilder, Director of the CAP Center

Western Illinois University, 1985

Utilizing selected volunteer faculty members, later augmented by peer advisors, the University established an Academic Advising Center with five major functions: 1) advising all new students who have earned fewer than 30 semester hours; 2) continued advising for students who have not declared majors; 3) advising of pre-professional students; 4) specialized advising for student athletes, students with disabilities, high risk students and honors students; and 5) serving as a general clearinghouse for all students on campus. Additional features of the program include off-campus advising, an individualized career exploration program, and intrusive advising activities.

Contact: Charles R. O'Brien, Director of University Advising Center; Anne Hargrove, Faculty Advisor

The Wichita State University, 1987

To counter increased student load and reduced staffing in the University College, the entry college for degree

and nondegree students, the following new programs were adopted: 1) the use of part-time paraprofessional staff during peak advising periods; 2) an Educational Planning Worksheet mailed to advisees to be completed before meeting with advisors; 3) a Personal Planning and Assessment Seminar, a non-credit seminar for students admitted or readmitted through special University committee action; 4) an adult seminar for returning students; 5) a credit bearing course for parents of new students on problems encountered by students; 6) a Family Orientation Program for all family members.

Contact: Robert W. Rozzelle, Assistant Professor and Coordinator, Advising Services

Four-Year Private Institutions

University of the Pacific, 1985

To improve coordination between existing services the Academic Support Team was created in 1978 as an ongoing committee of campus student life professionals and academic deans involved in academic advising. To improve skills of faculty and peer advisors training workshops for paraprofessionals were replaced with a two-credit course meeting four hours a week for a full semester, and regular workshops were established for faculty advisors.

Contact: Douglas Smith, Professor, Department of Mathematics and Director of Student Advising

Aquinas College, 1985

Aquinas reorganized its advising and academic support services into a Division of Student Development which includes a centralized academic advising delivery system. Selected and compensated faculty are utilized to advise undecided students. Additional features include a comprehensive advisor training program focusing on the intellectual, social, emotional, and physical growth of students.

Contact: Norbert J. Hruby, President, R. Paul Nelson, Vice President for Student Development

Bradley University, 1985

Undertook an extensive revision of its advising program which includes: 1) the development of the Academic Exploration Program (AEP) for undecided students; 2) the implementation of a peer advising program; 3) the publication of The Taxonomic Key, an advising tool for undecided students; 4) the inauguration of training programs for faculty advisors; 5) increased focus on general education in orientation activities; and 6) the implementation of the "Advising Hotline," a telephone advising service for use by students and faculty.

Contact: Ray Zarvell, Director of Educational Development; Alan Galsky, Associate Provost for Student Affairs

Brigham Young University, 1986

The university puts particular emphasis on the development of College Advisement Centers in conjunction

with advisement by computer. In addition, other features of this comprehensive approach to academic advising include a student assistant program, computer-aided faculty advising, needs-based new student orientation, a faculty mentoring seminar, and a multi-faceted evaluation program.

Contact: Gary L. Kramer, Director of Academic Advisement; Erlend D. Peterson, Associate Dean of Admissions and Records; Robert W. Spencer, Dean of Admissions and Records

Brown University, 1986

Under the Curricular Advising Program (CAP) freshmen are advised by the professor of one of their courses. Each year more than 100 faculty members agree to designate one of their courses as a CAP course to which freshmen are assigned. A student peer advisor, who is often a teaching or research assistant, assists the professor. The final component of CAP is "the Network." Undergraduates are exhorted to "work the Network" of deans, undergraduate resident counselors and other support personnel who play a role in the advising process.

Contact: Bruce Donovan, Dean of Freshmen and Sophomores; Robert Shaw, Assistant Dean of the College; John Fulton, Assistant Professor and Member of Faculty Committee on Advising

California Lutheran College, 1984

Freshman advisement takes place through an ungraded one-credit course which meets twice per week during the student's first semester on campus. Chosen faculty, who receive a stipend, work with a carefully selected student peer advisor in helping students to accomplish four goals: 1) develop relationships with faculty and a small group of peers; 2) begin the process of establishing personal, academic, and career goals; 3) become aware of resources available at the College which facilitate accomplishment of those goals; and 4) appreciate the value of a liberal arts education at California Lutheran College.

Contact: Pamela M. Jolicoeur, Associate Dean for Academic Affairs; Michael A. Kolitsky, Associate Professor of Biology

Centre College, 1986

To combat an attrition problem the advising and career planning program for freshmen and sophomores was targeted. Peer counselors were selected to aid faculty in advising. Also implemented were a series of four annual convocations focusing on "Choices at Centre," an award for the outstanding peer counselor and advisor, a credit-bearing internship program, and a career matrix concept used in advising sophomores.

Contact: Carol Lunney, Director, the Advising Center; Karin Ciholas, Associate Dean

College of New Rochelle School of New Resources, 1986

Designed to meet the needs of women and minority adult students, this

program promotes the integration of curricular and counseling functions at critical points in the student's progress towards the degree. The sequence of four courses begins with the entrance course, "Experience, Learning and Identity," and continues at the 30, 60 and 90 credit benchmarks. The 30 credit course is "Curriculum Review," the 60 is "Career/Interest Review," and the 90 is "Designing the Future."

Contact: Bessie W. Blake, Dean, School of New Resources

College of the Holy Cross, 1984

Converted the advising system from one in which all faculty advised freshmen students to a system where selected faculty are given the responsibility for advising freshmen. Significant elements in program implementation were the revision of the Academic Information Booklet and the Course Guide, implementation of a comprehensive Academic Advising Record and fall workshops for faculty advisors.

Contact: Joseph H. Maguire, Assistant Dean

Duke University, 1984

Trinity College of Arts and Sciences has established a Pre-Major Advising Center staffed by two full-time and one part-time professionals, two paraprofessionals, and approximately 80 volunteer faculty and staff members. The Center serves approximately 2,400 students each year with a comprehensive program for academic and related personal advising, referral coordination, and effective planning to define and meet educational and personal goals for each student.

Contact: Albert E. Eldrides, Associate Dean of Trinity College

Fuller Theological Seminary, 1987

Implemented a Peer Advising Program to relieve faculty of their advising responsibilities and free them to devote time to research and teaching. Each of 15 peer advisors works a 15 hour week and is responsible for advising approximately 100 students. The advisors are upper level students who are trained, supported and supervised by the director of academic advising.

Contact: Fred R. Pfursich, Director of Academic Advising; Cecil M. Robeck, Assistant Dean for Academic Systems

Guilford College, 1986

Each freshman is assigned as a freshman advisor his or her instructor in the college-wide, required first semester interdisciplinary studies course. Upperclass students serving as teaching assistants also help faculty with advising. Specially trained faculty take over as sophomore advisors for students who have not yet declared a major at the end of the freshmen year.

Contact: William R. Rogers, President, Samuel Schuman, Academic Dean

Heidelberg College, 1984

The intent of the Total Student Development Program is to develop an advising program which focuses not exclusively on academic matters, but instead on the holistic development of each individual. The program is conducted in small groups of 8-12 new students led by a faculty member and one or two upperclass students. Program objectives include: 1) to provide information and social support for new students; 2) to introduce students to goal-setting for developmental change; 3) to increase student awareness and use of college resources; and 4) to provide for students the opportunity to assess academic strengths and weaknesses, career interests, and value systems.

Contact: Robert E. Oleson, Dean of Student Life; Kenneth Porada, Chairman, Total Student Development Committee

Houston Baptist University, 1985

A computer-assisted academic advising system capable of generating several lists useful to faculty advisors has been developed. A list of students with marginal grade point averages is generated just before the last day for dropping classes so faculty can schedule meetings to discuss the students' progress in their courses. A Registration Process Form including basic information on students' academic background and standing can also be called up on the screen. Other innovations include computerizing results of an Advisor Perception Inventory, selecting an outstanding advisor annually and developing course correlation articulation tables between HBU and 12 area community colleges.

Contact: Jerry Ford, Dean, Smith College of General Studies

Houston Baptist University, 1987

To improve advising the Smith College of General Studies has in recent years adopted a computerized academic advising program; a comprehensive academic advising handbook; an Advisor Perception Inventory, annual selection of an outstanding advisor; advisor workshops for specific departments; a course descriptions booklet specifically for the program; course articulation with community colleges; and a "Hi Card" from the dean to all students each term--a postcard inquiring how things are going and inviting students to stop by the dean's office.

Contact: Jerry Ford, Dean, Smith College of General Studies

Long Island University/C.W. Post Campus, 1986

Operating from the perspective that academic advising was primarily a counseling function, the University developed an academic advising program delivered by full-time academic counselors. Features of the program include a three-week preservice training program, bi-weekly advisor in-service, annual performance review, and student evaluation. The institution reported a freshman-sophomore attrition rate of 14%, far below the national average for similar institutions.

Contact: Michael Soupios, University Dean for Arts and Sciences; A. Kathleen Tomlinson, Director of Academic Advising

Marietta College, 1985

In response to a need to ease the transition of freshmen to college and to reduce attrition, the college has adapted the University of South Carolina's University 101 model to a small private liberal arts college. Freshmen have the choice of three advising options--traditional advising, a freshman seminar, or College 101. In College 101 the instructor serves as the student's advisor and the course itself is central to the advising function. The course includes values clarification and career decision-making elements as well as a solid core of traditional academic content.

Contact: Arthur J. Acton, Associate Dean; Stephen W. Schwartz, Director of Advising

Marygrove College, 1987

A centralized Academic Advising Office was established in 1978 and Career Assessment Offices were merged with the Academic Advising Office in 1983. The Office of Advising is staffed by two full-time professional advisors, one for adult students and one for traditional students. Faculty advise students who have declared majors. The Office is located in the main administrative and classroom building on campus. The housing of career services with advising allows ready access by both faculty and students to career information.

Contact: Judith A. Heinen, Director, Academic Advising and Career Services; John R. Novak, Academic Dean

Point Loma Nazarene College, 1987

To maximize students' contact with advisors a computerized life advising system was established. Operating from a centralized advisement center, the program involves a data collection process which includes three self-report instruments that focus on career interests and personal data. This material along with the student's academic record is available on the computer's Life Advising Menu for use by the advisor and student.

Contact: Kenneth D. Hills, Vice President for Student Development; Sharon L. Irwin, Associate for Student Development/Counseling.

Providence College, 1985

In an effort to expand services for an increasing number of undecided students, the college established a corps of specifically selected and trained faculty members to serve as advisors to the undecided and developed summer orientation sessions designed to meet the needs of those students. The two and one-half-day orientation is required of students and is offered on a voluntary basis to parents. During the session students meet twice in a group setting and once on an individual basis with their faculty advisors. The parent program operates independently of the student program and includes a faculty panel, an alumni panel, a discussion with parents of

current students, and a variety of social and recreational activities.

Contact: Jacqueline Kiernan MacKay, Director of Student Development Center; Francis Patrick MacKay, Associate Professor of Chemistry

Rust College, 1986

To meet the social, cultural, and academic development needs of its students, Rust College developed an integrated approach to advising which includes a Basic Skills Program, a Division of Freshman Studies, and a tutoring/counseling service through the Special Services Program. Sophomores are assigned to a faculty divisional advisor. Division advising is augmented by a group of peer counselors.

Contact: Paul Lampley, Acting Academic Dean

Southern College of Seventh Day Adventists, 1986

At the request of the Vice President for Academic Administration, the Director of Records and Director of the Learning Center were asked to focus on the advising function. With additional assistance several program enhancements were developed: (1) an advisor guidebook; (2) a training manual; (3) advisor training sessions; (4) an advisor assignment system; (5) special training for advisors of undecided students; and (6) the development of a faculty senate standing committee on advising.

Contact: Mary Elam, Director of Records; Carole Haynes, Director of the Learning Center

St. Mary's College Minnesota, 1984

Implemented a freshmen advising program which features a selected group of faculty members as advisors. Faculty who do not serve as freshman advisors are utilized as major advisors for students enrolling in their academic departments. Students are advised by the freshman advisor until they declare a major. After declaring a major a student may choose to continue to be advised by the assigned freshman advisor or by a faculty member in the department in which the student is majoring. Other features of the freshman advising program include a ratio of 20 students per advisor, assignment of students without regard for intended major, and advisor workshops held each term.

Contact: John J. Johnson, Vice President for Academic Affairs; Michael E. Galkowski, Registrar/Director of Academic Advising

Tufts University, 1984

Implemented the Freshman Explorations Program, a seminar which combines freshman advising with a nontraditional academic experience. With the support of a faculty member, juniors and seniors propose course content and lead discussion for groups of ten to twelve freshmen. Although each exploration is handled differently, time is usually allocated in each session for the faculty advisor to discuss academic advising concerns with the freshmen.

Contact: Peter L.D. Reid, Associate

Professor of Classics and Chairman, Committee on Undergraduate Advising and Counseling; Robyn Gittleman, Director of Freshman Explorations

Vanderbilt University, 1986

Established a pre-major advising program for students in the College of Arts and Sciences where carefully selected faculty members serve as advisors for 900 entering students. Additional features of the program are mandatory training, advisor's handbook, advisor's hotline, and a significant program of faculty advisor recognition.

Contact: M. Francille Bergquist, Associate Dean of Arts and Sciences

Virginia Polytechnic Institute and University, 1986

Developed a mandatory, three-tiered advising program for black freshmen. The program includes volunteer faculty advisors, graduate student advisors, and peer advisors. This highly intrusive advising program features contact which each of the three advisors before, during, and after each quarter. In addition, the program features a class titled "Learning to Learn" which includes units on study and thinking skills as well as competency enhancement through individualized learning systems.

Contact: David Roselle, Provost

Whittier College, 1987

Freshmen are matched with mentors--faculty and administrators--based on information collected during the summer about goals and interests. Each mentor, aided by a peer counselor, oversees a group of 10-12 students. Freshmen may also take a freshman seminar, a one-unit introduction to college course taught by mentors. Mentors and peer counselors meet every two weeks to discuss the adjustment of new students and conduct social and cultural activities for their students. The faculty views mentoring as so important that they have included it as one of the major criteria for promotion and tenure.

Contact: Gerald S. Adams, Associate Academic Dean for Advisement

Wittenberg University, 1985

Following a thorough review of advising services for freshmen, the University established a policy that each freshman would be enrolled in a fall term course taught by his or her assigned faculty advisor. Following the implementation of this program, the faculty's awareness of a commitment to advising resulted in additional program enhancements which include the development of: 1) a position of Coordinator of Academic Advising; 2) a freshman advising manual; 3) an early alert system for freshmen in personal or academic difficulty; 4) a freshman advising newsletter; 5) a freshman support group and an academic skills seminar for students in academic difficulty.

Contact: Judith D. Calvert, Coordinator of Academic Advising

Two Year Institutions

Belleville Area College, 1985

Belleville Area College adopted the ASSET Program and integrated it with their academic advising system. In the two and one-half-hour administration of ASSET students complete the educational planning form and assessments of language usage, reading skills, numerical skills and, if appropriate, advanced mathematics before engaging in academic advising and registration.

Contact: Dennis Sparn, Associate Dean of Counseling Center; Leo Welch, Counselor

Eastern Wyoming College, 1986

Undertook a comprehensive revision in the academic advising program which includes an Early Alert System, a developmental new student orientation program, an advising handbook, advisor evaluation and a compensation program for faculty advisors. Other aspects of the program are a specific focus on part-time students and the development of a peer counseling program. Over a three-year period, the institution reduced its attrition rate from 54% to 31.9%

Contact: Guido E. Smith, President; Billy Bates, Director of Admissions and Records

Genesee Community College, 1984

As a result of the Middle States review in 1976, the college was urged to revise its advising system which was decentralized to faculty and program directors. Through a three-year Strengthening Developing Institutions Program (SDIP) grant the institution developed an Advising Center. By integrating orientation, testing, curriculum planning, assistance with academic difficulties, and the degree audit system, the Center had as its ultimate goals: 1) increasing student satisfaction with the institution; 2) increasing student chances for success; and 3) improving student retention.

Contact: Ann H. Lechner, Director of Records, Scheduling, and Advisement

Illinois Central College, 1987

To improve advising outreach, Career Spectrum, a computerized career guidance system consisting of three modules was developed. The modules are a Career Interest Survey, a National Career Descriptions module, and a module describing the college's programs. Career Spectrum is used by junior high schools, high schools and professional agencies. To reach more adult students the Career Interest Survey is printed in the fall class schedule which is mailed to community residents' homes Recipients can mail in the completed survey and receive results by mail.

Contact: Jack Teal, Director of Advisement and Assessment

Johnson County Community College, 1984

The Counseling Center at Johnson County Community College is respon-

sible for all academic advising and personal, social, and career counseling which takes place on the campus. Featured in this program are a variety of workshops, a comprehensive Transfer Program Handbook, workshops for high school guidance counselors, campus visits with students who have transferred from the College to four-year institutions and pre-admissions counseling.

Contact: Buddy Ramos, Director of Counseling

Kapiolani Community College, 1986

Self-Advising Materials, a computer-assisted advising program, provides students with up-to-date transcript information, program requirements ordered in a logical sequence of study, information directly related to their particular area of study and placement test results. The computer advising system automatically selects courses most appropriate for the student's next semester. Students are provided five course recommendations each semester. Information is printed out on one easy-to-read page.

Contact: Marion G. Lamb, Coordinator, Assessment and Informational Services; Len Lester, Data Processing Instructor

Monroe Community College, 1987

An admissions/advisement transfer cooperative degree program in which students obtain concurrent admission to both the two-year and four-year college through one application process. Characteristics of the agreement include one application fee, one set of records, predesignated GPA requirements for certain programs, and guaranteed admission to a four-year college. Advising assistance includes semester notification to four-year institutions of the academic progress of students, and staff advising support from four-year institutions while students are enrolled at two-year colleges.

Contact: Richard Degus, Director of Transfer and Placement

Mt. San Antonio College, 1984

Mt. San Antonio College has developed an implementation strategy for a computer-assisted transfer student advising program. The four phases of this strategy are: 1) develop a program to check graduation requirements for occupational majors; 2) develop a program for course articulation for major feeder institutions; 3) develop a program for listing course prerequisites at the transfer institution; and 4) provide student access to the system by entering in the transfer institution and receiving output in three categories: courses completed, courses in progress, and courses to be completed.

Contact: Bruce L. Paulson, Dean of Student Services; J. Edwin Nettell, Counselor

Seminole Community College, 1985

In an attempt to respond to faculty and student criticisms of the advising process, Seminole Community College (SCC) and the University of Central Florida (UCF) collaborated in developing an articulated program of co-

advisement. The co-advisement approach features four main components: 1) joint advisement of students by SCC counselors, SCC faculty, and UCF faculty; 2) planning and training sessions for all participants; 3) cooperative preparation of advising materials; and 4) comprehensive program evaluation. The program features co-advisement sessions involving the personnel listed in point number one above.

Contact: Marquerite M. Culp, Director of Student Services

Yakima Valley Community College, 1985

An Ad-Hoc Advising Committee has initiated a variety of steps to revitalize the advising program. These include a five-part workshop for faculty advisors for which they are granted professional improvement credit (applicable to salary increases). There is also a VIP program or "buddy system" matching a high risk student with a staff member. Personal letters are mailed two weeks before classes begin and staff arrange to see their "buddy" at least once during the first week and then throughout the semester.

Contact: Terrance R. Brown, President; Donald W. Hughes, Dean of Students

The Williamsport Area Community College, 1987

Faced with daily headlines announcing its impending closing, Williamsport developed a three-part program to improve student retention. The program includes: a Student Intake or "one-stop shopping" system in which testing, advising, and scheduling of students is accomplished in one full day on campus; an academic intervention program including an early warning system and a study skills clinic; and upgraded career services including a number of grant funded programs in career development and a Comprehensive Plan for Student Development stressing adjustment to college, job search strategies and transfer procedures.

Contact: William J. Martin, Dean of Student Services; Lawrence W. Emery, Jr., Director of Advisement and Career Services; R. Dean Foster, Director of Developmental Studies/ Act 100

CHAPTER 11

References: Selectively Annotated

Wesley R. Habley

Lois Renter

One indication of just how far the field of academic advising has come in the last decade became immediately obvious as we prepared this chapter. The obligatory search of ERIC and Dissertation Abstracts yielded 175 and 64 "hits" respectively between 1981 and 1987 only! And, that search didn't include books, conference proceedings, manuals, and unpublished, but significant, manuscripts. Our initial intention was to provide the reader with a bibliography that was both comprehensive and annotated. And, although we were pleasantly surprised with the breadth and depth of the possible entries in the bibliography, we were also disappointed that we had neither the time nor the space to fulfill that initial intention. We were also perplexed by the task of making decisions about which entries would be included.

Our response to this dilemma was choosing to annotate selected references which appear in the first ten chapters of the monograph. Chosen for annotation were entries which focus directly on the topic of academic advising or those which are extensively cited by our authors. Excluded from annotation are some entries which are book-length, peripheral to the central focus, sources of limited quotations, or are dated. In a sense then, the chapter authors made the decision as to which entries appear in this list and the editor decided which entries required annotation. What follows is an alphabetical list of more than 100 entries, nearly 75 of which have been annotated by the authors of this chapter. We are aware of the possibility that we may have omitted significant works from the bibliography. Such exclusions are unintentional.

References

Aleamoni, L.M. "Student Ratings of Instruction." In J. Millman (ed.), Handbook of Teacher Evaluation. Beverly Hills, California: Sage, 1981.

Arreola, R.A. "Establishing A Successful Faculty Evaluation and Development Program." In A. Smith (ed.), New Directions for Community Colleges: Evaluating Faculty and Staff. San Francisco: Jossey Bass, 1983.

Astin, A. Green, K.C., and Korn, W.S. The American Freshman: Twenty Year Trends. Los Angeles: The Higher Education Research Institute Graduate School of Education, University of California, 1987.

Aubrecht, J.D. "Are Student Ratings of Teacher Effectiveness Valid?" IDEA paper No. 2. Manhattan, Kansas: Center for Faculty Evaluation and Development, 1979.

Aubrecht, J.D. "Reliability, Validity, and Generalizability of Student Ratings of Instruction." IDEA Paper No. 6. Manhattan, Kansas: Center for Faculty Evaluation and Development, 1981.

Barman, C.R. and Benson, P.A. "Peer Advising: A Working Model." NACADA Journal, 1981, 1 (2).

Research indicates that one important factor in student retention involves establishment of a meaningful relationship with one person associated with the academic program. Other studies show peer advising producing positive results. Based on this information, the University of Wisconsin-Superior (UWS) developed and implemented the Peer Advisement Program during the 1978-79 academic year. Major components of the plan are the assignment of an advisor to each new freshman, selection of advisors, supervision of advisors by faculty, office space, advisor wages, and advisor work load. At the end of the advising period, evaluation by students and the perceptions of faculty were positive and a decision to continue the program was made.

Bellenger, J.E., and Bellenger, D.N. "Guidelines for Computerizing Your Information System for Academic Program Counseling: Dealing with People Problems." NASPA Journal. 1987, 24(4).

Three main benefits of a computerized information system in counseling are time efficiency; possible cost reduction, though usually not through staff reduction; and accuracy. Before designing the framework of the system, desirable system characteristics must be determined, such as counselor access, information recency, and various levels of analysis and authority. After installation, individual behavioral problems may occur. The authors suggest steps which can be taken to minimize dysfunctional behavior.

Blackburn, R.T. "The Meaning of Work in Academia." In J.I. Doi (ed.), New Directions for Institutional Research: Assessing Faculty Effort. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1974.

Blake, R., Mouton, J.S., and Williams, M.W. The Academic Administrator Grid. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers, 1982.

Braskamp. L., Brandenburg, D., and Ory, J. Evaluating Teaching Effectiveness. Beverly Hills, California: Sage Publications, Inc., 1984.

Brown, C.R., and Myers, R. "Student vs. Faculty Curriculum Advising." Journal of College Student Personnel, 1975, 16.

Advisee perceptions of faculty advisors were compared with those of student (peer) advisors. Advisees perceived peer advisors more positively than their faculty counterparts. Peer advisors were seen as treating the advising process as a joint decision making process, while faculty advisors were perceived as either making decisions for advisees or leaving decisions up to them alone.

Brown, R.D. and Sanstead, M.J. "Using Evaluation to Make Decisions About Academic Advising Programs." In R. Winston, S. Ender, and T. Miller (eds.), New Directions for Student Services: Developmental Approaches to Academic Advising. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1982.

This chapter summarizes the research literature on academic advising and discusses evaluative processes for making decisions about the advising process. The authors present a brief review of several evaluation approaches and identify the critical issues affected by the academic advising process. Several key qualities and strategies individuals might consider in the evaluation process are also presented.

Bushnell, D. Organizing for Change: New Priorities for Community Colleges. New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, 1973.

Carstensen, D.J., and Silberhorn, C. A National Survey of Academic Advising. Iowa City, Iowa: American College Testing Program, 1979.

Data were gathered from a national sample of 2-year, 4-year public, and 4-year private postsecondary institutions. Responses were received from 820 of 1095 institutions surveyed. Some of the conclusions: institutions are more alike than different in their advising delivery systems; advising is perceived by administrators as a low-status function; advising is seen as an informative activity rather than a developmental process. There is a lack of evaluation procedures, and many institutions have no comprehensive advising policy statements. Interest in the advising function is increasing.

Cashin, W.E. "Concerns About Using Student Ratings in Community Colleges." In New Directions for Community Colleges: Evaluating Faculty and Staff. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1983.

Chickering, A.W. Education and Identity. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1969.

Chickering, A.W. The Modern American College. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1981.

Clark, B. The Academic Life: Small Worlds, Different Worlds. Princeton, N.J.: Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1987.

Council for the Advancement of Standards for Student Services/Development Programs. CAS Standards and Guidelines for Student Services/Development Programs. Iowa City, Iowa: The American College Testing Program, 1986.

The Council for the Advancement of Standards, including membership of approximately 22 professional associations, was formed for three major purposes: (1) to develop, adopt, and disseminate standards for student services and student development programs; (2) to assist professionals in the utilization of these standards: and (3) to establish a flexible system for the evaluation of the standards. This monograph contains general standards for student development services and specialized standards for 16 student development functions. Each of the functional areas contains statements on mission, program, organization and administration, human resources, funding, facilities, campus and community relations, ethics, and evaluation.

Crockett, D.S. "Academic Advising." In Noel, L., Levitz, R., and Saluri, D. (eds.), Increasing Student Retention. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1985.

This chapter discusses a number of elements critical to enhancing the quality of academic advising and concludes that with proper administrative support and a developmental emphasis, academic advising can provide students with a needed and valuable service that enhances their growth and development as well as their commitment to the institution and the higher education experience.

Crockett, D.S. "Academic Advising: A Cornerstone of Student Retention." In L. Noel (ed.), New Directions for Student Services: Reducing the Dropout Rate, No. 3, San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1978.

This chapter discusses the relationship between academic advising and improved student retention. A conceptual model for developing and implementing a successful advising program is presented.

Crockett, D.S. (ed.), Academic Advising: A Resource Document. Iowa City, Iowa: American College Testing Program, 1978.

These two loose-leaf binder collections of materials are an invaluable resource for anyone seeking to establish or maintain an effective advising program. They contain invited essays by leaders in the advising field, as well as other materials, such as descriptions of models presently in use, excerpts from handbooks, training materials, journal articles, and annotated bibliographies. Subjects covered include confidentiality, evaluation instruments, training tips, handbooks, minority students and many more. **Note:** This document is no longer in print. It has been superceded by Advising Skills, Techniques and Resources edited by Crockett and available from the American College Testing Program.

Crockett, D. Academic Advising Audit. Iowa City: American College Testing Program, 1987.

The audit is designed to assist institutions in evaluating the current status of their advising programs. Results are intended to reveal areas of strength and areas where improvement may be needed. Included in the audit are sections on information gathering, evaluation, analysis, and action planning. The final section includes suggestions for additional resources and materials to assist in the further study and development of campus advising programs.

Crockett, D.S., and Habley, W.R. "Academic Advising Conference Outline and Notes." Iowa City, Iowa: American College Testing Program, 1987.

This comprehensive outline is provided for participants in the ACT National Center Conference on Academic Advising. It presents, in outline form, the visuals used in the delivery of the conference.

Crockett, D.S., and Levitz, R. "Current Advising Practices in Colleges and Universities." In R. Winston, et al. (eds.), Developmental Advising. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1984.

This chapter presents the findings of the 1983 National Survey of Academic Advising with a focus on advising goals and needs, administrative structures for academic advising, and delivery of services, and includes 15 major conclusions of the survey.

Crockett, D.S. and Levitz, R. A National Survey of Academic Advising: A Final Report. Iowa City, Iowa: American College Testing Program, 1983.

This report summarizes the findings of the 1983 National Survey of Academic Advising. It includes a brief narrative of the findings of the survey and presents the survey data in 27 tables.

Crookston, B.B. "A Developmental View of Academic Advising as Teaching." Journal of College Student Personnel, 1972, 13.

The difference between developmental and prescriptive advising is delineated. Crookston advocates developmental advising which is based on the nature and quality of the relationship between student and advisors. Advising is viewed as a teaching function characterized by a negotiated contract concerning expectations and responsibilities.

Ender, S.C., and Winston, R.B. "Training Allied Professional Academic Advisors." In R.B. Winston, Jr., S.C. Ender, and T.K. Miller (eds.), New Directions for Student Services; Developmental Approaches to Academic Advising. No. 17, San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1982.

This chapter presents the essential skills and competencies that all advisors must possess if they are to offer truly effective academic advising. Ender and Winston identify eleven components and outline goals and outcome objectives for each component. Critical issues to be addressed in a training program are also discussed.

Ender, S., Winston, R.W., and Miller, T. "Academic Advising as Student Development." In R. Winston, S. Ender, and T. Miller (eds.), New Directions for Student Services: Developmental Approaches to Academic Advising, No. 17, San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1982.

The authors suggest that developmental advising cannot occur without collaboration among the institution's faculty, student affairs staff members, and academic administrators. A rationale and definition of developmental advising are given. The authors maintain that the roles of individuals involved in the program and the politics of the institution must be recognized and considered if there is to be an integrated academic-student affairs advising program.

Erikson, E. Identity: Youth and Crisis. New York: Norton, 1968.

Felicetti, D.A., and Dause, C.A. "Project 100/Challenge Program." The Award Winners. Iowa City, Iowa: American College Testing Program, 1986.

The authors describe an enhanced program of academic advising for underprepared and under-represented students at the University of Detroit. Students and parents sign an agreement form requiring the student to spend a minimum of five hours in the Learning Center. In addition, once the student is enrolled, daily and monitored student-advisor contact is implemented. Utilizing ACT's Survey of Advising, student evaluations showed that the effort rated higher than any other advising activity on the campus.

Fielstein, L. "Student Preferences for Personal Contact in a Student-Faculty Advising Relationship." NACADA Journal, 1987, 7, (2).

The author of this study states that his purpose is to arrive at a clearer understanding of the type of relationship students want when interacting with a faculty advisor. Many researchers claim that a strong, personal relationship is preferred. Utilizing a sample of 90 students from a mid-sized public university, the researcher concluded that most students desire a quality relationship with an advisor. The author cautions, however, that the assumption that all students desire such a relationship may not be accurate. She calls for additional research on the topic.

Fitzgerald, M.J., and Grafton, C.L. "Comparisons and Implications of Peer and Student Evaluation for a Community College Faculty." Community/Junior College Research Quarterly. 1981, 5(4).

Faculty at a California community college had the option of choosing evaluation by an immediate superior, peer evaluation, evaluation by students, or a combination of any of the three methods. The choices resulted in 53 faculty members deciding on a combination of peer and student evaluation. A comparative investigation supported the concept of student evaluation as an integral part of the judgmental process. Faculty members had a higher degree of confidence in student evaluations and were more apt to change because of student evaluations.

Frisz, R. H. and Lane, J.R. "Student User Evaluations of Peer Adviser Services." Journal of College Student Personnel, 1987, 28.

The counseling profession has not made any systematic effort to evaluate its services. In particular, few studies have been made of students' evaluations of their experiences with peer advisors. In this study, the effectiveness of a peer advising program at Queens College of the City University of New York was evaluated by analyzing results of a questionnaire completed by student users of the program over three semesters. The results were positive and supported the use of the existing peer advising training model and continuing the high standards for the program. Further research might include studies on sex and class year differences and differing responses by users and advisors on the dynamics of an interview.

Garland, P. "Serving More Than Students; A Critical Need for College Student Personnel Services." ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Report No. 7, Washington, D.C.: Association for the Study of Higher Education, 1985.

Gnepp, J., Keating, D.P., and Masters, J.C. "A Peer System for Academic Advising." Journal of College Student Personnel, 1980, 21.

The Institute of Child Development at the University of Minnesota has maintained a successful peer advising system as a supplement to faculty advising for nine years. The peer advisors take on the more routine advising responsibilities concerning registration, filling out forms, etc., and largely administer the program themselves. Repeated evaluation by student users has been positive.

Gordon, V.N. Academic Advisers' Pre-service Training Manual. Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University, 1987.

This manual was designed to assist academic advisors in training for their advising and teaching responsibilities in the University College at The Ohio State University. The manual contains five major sections: (1) The Setting for Academic Advising; (2) Interpersonal Dynamics of the Advising Process; (3) Advising Tasks in University College; (4) Career Advising; and (5) Advising Special Populations.

Gordon, V.N. "Training Professional and Paraprofessional Advisors." In R.B. Winston, Jr., T.K. Miller, S.C. Ender, T. Grites and Associates, Developmental Academic Advising. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Inc., 1984.

This chapter focuses on seven major steps in the development of advisor training programs: (1) determining the need for training; (2) obtaining administrative support; (3) setting training objectives; (4) identifying training program topics and content; (5) selecting appropriate strategies or methods; (6) evaluating the program; and (7) reassessment and future planning. The final section of this chapter focuses on training programs for student and other paraprofessional advisors and discusses how training efforts might be tailored to these particular groups.

Gordon, V.N. The Undecided College Student: an Academic and Career Advising Challenge. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas, 1984.

This book describes how academic advisors, counselors, faculty, and college administrators can help undecided college students set and implement educational and career goals. The author discusses the origins of indecision, identifies specific categories of undecided students, and describes model programs for counseling and advising students. She provides a developmental advising approach and focuses on career development concepts. Program components, delivery systems, administrative considerations, individual and group advising techniques, advisor training, and program evaluation are fully detailed.

Gordon, V.N. "The Undecided Student: A Developmental Perspective." Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1981, 59, (7).

The many research studies concerning undecided college-age youth have, in some cases, resulted in conflicting data which make the overall research picture on undecided students confusing. When advisors or counselors incorporate a developmental advising perspective into their work, many apparently anxious, confused students can be seen as normal, maturing individuals. This study suggests that the concepts of three major theorists--Super, Tiedeman, and Perry--can be integrated when applied to the individual student and used in academic advising, career counseling, teaching, and administration.

Gordon, V.N. and Grites, T.J. "The Freshman Seminar Course: Helping Students Succeed." Journal of College Student Personnel, 1984, 25.

While the course goals of a freshman seminar must be defined by student needs at a specific campus, there are many objectives common to the programs. Further questions involve who should teach freshman seminar courses in what format and the awarding of credit and grading. The possibilities for course content are many, but the course goals should make content apparent. Evaluation must be an integral part of the process, again with course goals determining specific evaluation tools. In most cases, political issues involved in establishing the course must be addressed.

Grasha, A.F. Assessing and Developing Faculty Performance: Principals and Models. Communication and Education Associates, Cincinnati, Ohio: 1977.

Grites, T.J. "Academic Advising: An Atlas for Liberal Education." The Forum for Liberal Education. Washington, D.C.: Association of American Colleges, 1986, 3, (4).

This brief position paper covers the scope of advising, advising strategies, and advisor skills. Focusing on what individual faculty advisors can do to improve their advising, the author suggests that the innovations included in the paper are possible, inexpensive, effective, and time efficient.

Grites, T.J. Academic Advising: Getting Us Through the Eighties. Washington D.C.: American Association for Higher Education, 1979.

This report presents an excellent comprehensive review and synthesis of the literature on academic advising prior to 1979. It traces advising's historical development and current models and practices. A variety of delivery systems including faculty advising, advising centers, peer/paraprofessional advising, computer-assisted advising, group, advising, and others are described.

Grites, T., and Teague, C. "Faculty Contracts and Academic Advising." Journal of College Student Personnel, 1980, 21.

Grites, T.J. "Improving Academic Advising." IDEA Paper No. 3. Manhattan, Kansas: Center for Faculty Evaluation and Development, Kansas State University, 1980.

Grites, T.J. "Student and Self Ratings of Teacher-Advisors." NACADA Journal, 1981, 1, (1).

In order to analyze both faculty and student evaluations of advising, two forms (student and faculty) of two instruments, Student Instructional Report and Advising Satisfaction Questionnaire, were administered. From the results, three major conclusions were drawn. First, students rate faculty members differently than faculty members rate themselves, both as teachers and as advisors. Second, students desire a warm, friendly relationship with faculty, especially in advising. Third, no general conclusions could be made about the effects of various descriptive characteristics on student ratings of faculty. Future studies are needed to clarify relationships between students and faculty and to facilitate improvement in them.

Grites, T.J. "Training the Academic Advisor." In D.S. Crockett (ed.), Academic Advising: A Resource Document. Iowa City, Iowa: American College Testing Program, 1978.

The author presents a case for the comprehensive training of academic advisors. In addition to focusing on training objectives and strategies, the author suggests that the content of training programs include basic information skills, career development and decision-making skills, communication skills, and co-curricular activities, as well as an environmental and developmental perspective.

Habley, W.R. "Academic Advisement: the Critical Link in Student Retention." NASPA Journal, 1981, 18, (4).

The advisement-retention model presents a theoretical framework which underscores the importance of academic advising to retention. It relies on two basic assumptions: that advising must be viewed as developmental and that an institution may not be able to reverse all the variables which lead to attrition. Within the model, the various factors are developed along a continuum which focuses primarily on five factors directly related to the quality of the educational program in relation to the student's defined educational and career goals. The academic advisor is the key figure in assisting students to explore their goals and to choose appropriate academic offerings.

Habley, W.R. "The Advantages and Disadvantages of Using Students As Academic Advisors." NASPA Journal, 1979, 17.

The author presents 11 advantages and seven disadvantages associated with the use of students as academic advisors. He suggests that paraprofessional advisors can be a major contributor to the institution's advising program because of the advantages they provide and argues that the disadvantages can be overcome through systematic planning for the selection, training, and supervision of paraprofessional staff.

Habley, W.R. "Advisee Satisfaction with Student, Faculty and Advisement Center Academic Advisors." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Illinois State University, 1978.

The author studied student satisfaction with faculty advisors, professional advisors, and paraprofessional advisors employed in the Academic Advisement Center at Illinois State University. On each of the variables measured, student satisfaction with professional and paraprofessional advisors was higher than satisfaction with faculty advisors.

Habley, W.R. "Organizational Structures for Academic Advising: Models and Implications." Journal of College Student Personnel, 1983, 24, (6).

Habley presents and discusses seven basic organizational models for academic advising programs. The seven models are identified as 1) Faculty-only; 2) Supplementary; 3) Split; 4) Dual; 5) Total Intake; 6) Satellite; and 7) Self-contained.

Habley, W.R., Crockett, D.S. and Cowart, S.C. The ACT Third National Survey of Academic Advising. Iowa City, Iowa: American College Testing Program, 1987.

This document presents tabular data from the 1987 survey on advising practices with data broken down by institutional type. Major sections of the report are institutional characteristics, advising in academic departments, advising offices, and goals and effectiveness.

Habley, W.R., and McCauley, M.E. "The Relationship Between Institutional Characteristics and the Organization of Advising Services." NACADA Journal, 1987, 7, (1).

Following a discussion of seven organizational models for academic advising (See Habley, 1983 entry) the authors examined the prevalence of the models by institutional size, educational offering (two-year or four-year), and type (public or private). Distinct trends emerged which included a greater reliance on faculty in private institutions, greater prevalence of advising offices at public institutions, and the almost exclusive deployment of the self-contained model in public two-year institutions.

Hackman, J.R., and Oldham, G.R. Work Redesign. Reading, Massachusetts: Addison Wesley, 1980.

Haynes, W., and McCauley, M. "A Comprehensive New Advising Program." The 'Award Winners. Iowa City, Iowa: American College Testing Program, 1987.

The authors describe a long-term effort to review and enhance the delivery of advising services at Ball State University. Through a team management approach involving faculty, the new system features a freshman advising program staffed by professional advisors at a ratio of 400/1, faculty advising for students at the sophomore level and above, the development of a computerized degree audit system with faculty access through the use of personal computers, and the development of adjunct advising centers in various locations on the campus.

Havighurst, R.F. Developmental Tasks and Education (3rd Edition). New York: McKay, 1972.

Hines, E.R. "Delivery Systems and the Institutional Context." In R.B. Winston, Jr., S.C. Ender, T.K. Miller, T.J. Grites, and Associates, Developmental Academic Advising. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1984.

Hines analyzes the dynamics present in most institutions of higher education and how they influence the advising delivery system selected. He investigates the role institutional characteristics (size, control, type, residential status, and program mix) have in determining appropriate organizational structures and ultimately the impact on the advising process. Consideration is given to the overall organizational structure of the institution, budget and facilities management, and administrative leadership as they affect advising programs.

Jennings, S.G. "Academic Advising in the Residence Halls," NASPA Journal, 1978, 16.

In 1975 a pilot peer advisor program was initiated at the University of Georgia College of Arts and Sciences which called for resident assistants to do academic advising with students in their residence halls. The advisors were to be responsible for all activities that faculty advisors were asked to do. The peer advisors were trained by participating in nine modules involving interpersonal and group skills, university requirements and procedures, student development, referral, summer orientation, observation and participation in advising, records systems, and study skills. The last module was concerned with integrating the peer advisory role with the resident assistant role. A comparison of student groups receiving peer-advising or faculty advising indicated that the students benefited more from the peer advising program. The program was not renewed but some benefits of the pilot program reached into the faculty advising program.

Kanter, R.M. The Change Masters: Innovations for Productivity in the American Corporation. New York: Simon and Schuster, 1983.

Kapraun, E.D., and Coldren, D.W. "An Approach to the Evaluation of Academic Advising." Journal of College Student Personnel, 1980, 21.

An evaluation of faculty advising which focuses on the assessment of student perceptions was implemented on the Fayette Campus of Pennsylvania State University. The instrument is designed to elicit a numerical rating of the advisor regarding nine dimensions of advising activity. The results of the appraisal are used for formative and summative evaluations and to identify and reward effective advisors.

Kerr, B. "Alumni Advising in the Residence Halls." NASPA Journal, 1978, 16.

King, M.C. "Utilizing Part-time Paraprofessionals as Academic Advisors: A Model." In D.S. Crockett (ed.), Academic Advising: A Resource Document. 1979 Supplement. Iowa City, Iowa: American College Testing Program, 1979.

The author describes a program utilizing paraprofessionals to provide academic advising for all entering students during summer orientation and continued advising at the freshman level for students in Associate of Arts and Associate of Science degree programs at Ocean County College. Included in the review is a description of training activities undertaken to implement the paraprofessional system.

Knefelkamp, L., Widick, C., and Parker, C. New Directions for Student Services: Applying New Developmental Findings, No. 4, San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1978.

Knowles, A. (ed.), Handbook of College and University Administration. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1970.

Kramer, H.C. "The Advising Coordinator: Managing from a One-Down Position." NACADA Journal, 1981, 1, (1).

The role of the advising coordinator is a challenging one. A member of middle management, the coordinator manages the service but does not manage the advisors. The relationship between the coordinator and faculty may be a difficult one, partly because of differing viewpoints about advising. The duties of a coordinator are to plan, organize, and evaluate academic advising. The coordinator's abilities must include effective leadership, ingenuity, and persistence.

Kramer, H.C. "Advising Implications for Faculty Development." NACADA Journal, 1983, 3, (2).

The author suggests that a major reason for promoting effective advising is that a healthy advising program serves as a useful mechanism for faculty development. He suggests that (1) advising frequently brings problems to the surface; (2) advising involves the important players (students and faculty); (3) advising assists in problem identification; (4) advising may be utilized to identify differences between theory and practice; (5) advising provides a training ground for faculty; and (6) advising serves as a common faculty meeting ground.

Kramer, H.C. "Evaluation of Academic Advisors: Administrator and Faculty Perspectives." NACADA Journal, 1982, 2, (1).

The author discusses the need for a comprehensive evaluation system for academic advising which includes both summative and formative features. In addition to providing a rationale for accountability and problems with establishing standards for faculty advisor evaluation, the author suggests that the real challenge of evaluating faculty advising rests in the development of an organizational framework which will allow both formative and summative evaluation to both exist and contribute to organizational health and institutional vitality.

Kramer, H.C., and Gardner, R.E. "Managing Faculty Advising." In D.S. Crockett (ed.), Academic Advising: A Resource Document. Iowa City, Iowa: American College Testing Program, 1978.

The authors present a complete overview of the issue of managing faculty advising. Included are nine chapters: (1) Managing and Management of Faculty Advisors; (2) Organization of the Advising System; (3) Selection, Orientation and Training; (4) A Framework for Advising; (5) The Manager as Supervisor; (6) Advisor and Advising Appraisal; (7) A Management Information System; (8) Planning; and (9) Something to Think About. This entire section of the resource document was later published in monograph form and copyrighted by the authors.

Laird, D. Approaches to Training and Development. Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, 1978.

Landry, M.A. "The Necessity for a Comprehensive Advising System." NACADA Journal, 1981, 1, (2).

Stressing the need for comprehensive delivery of advising and support services, the author presents a series of developments undertaken at Marymount Manhattan College including an advising office, the use of peer advisors, services to undecided students, and an advisor training retreat.

Larsen, M.D. and Brown, B. "Student and Faculty Expectations of Academic Advising. NACADA Journal, 1983, 3, (1).

The authors compared student and faculty expectations of academic advising at several state universities. Surveying questions related to personal problems, information on extracurricular activities, student potential, the mechanics of advising, and academic progress, the study concluded that there was a significant amount of agreement between faculty and students regarding the responsibilities of each in advising. Because some disagreement was discovered, the authors recommended that each institution establish and distribute a formal statement identifying the specific expectations of advisees and advisors.

Larson, M.D. "Rewards for Academic Advising." NACADA Journal, 1983, 3, (2).

In a survey distributed to heads of departments, faculty with major advising responsibilities, and other faculty in Colleges of Arts and Sciences at four public universities, the author probed the role of academic advising as it relates to faculty evaluation and reward. The author's major conclusion was that although academic advising is recognized as a significant part of an institution's mission, it does not rate high in terms of the traditional reward structure. He suggests that a clear definition of advising be established and the definition be systematically included in the evaluation and reward structure for faculty advisors.

Lippitt, G.L., and Lippitt, R. Consulting Process in Action. San Diego, California: University Associates, 1978.

Lloyd-Jones, E., and Smith, M.R. Student Personnel Work as Deeper Teaching. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1954.

Marsh, H.W. "Student Evaluations of University Teaching: Dimensionality, Reliability, Validity, Potential Biases, and Utility." Journal of Educational Psychology, 1984, 76.

McKeachie, W.J. "Student Ratings of Faculty: a Reprise." Academe, 1979, 65.

McKinney, C.W. and Hartwig, M. "A Comparative Study of Student and Academic Department Personnel Perceptions of Academic Advising at the University of California, Santa Barbara." College and University. 1981, 56, (3).

This study tried to answer questions about (1) satisfaction with academic advising among departments and students; (2) student awareness of departmental programs; and (3) who does most of the advising. Surveys were mailed to 80 undergraduate programs and departments; 45 were returned. One thousand surveys were distributed to students waiting in line for registration; 350 valid responses were returned. There are several caveats given concerning both departmental and student responses. Analyses of departmental surveys yielded equivocal results in several areas. Student results tended to be negative. A survey model was developed partly based on evidence gathered outside the surveys. Recommendations include considering peer advising, consolidating requirement information and regulations into one source book, and improving commitment to a better advising program.

Miller, R.I. Evaluating Faculty Performance. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1972.

Miller, T. and McCaffrey, S. "Student Development Theory: Foundations for Academic Advising." In R. Winston, S. Ender, and T. Miller (eds.), New Directions for Student Services: Developmental Approaches to Academic Advising, No. 17, San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1982.

The authors state that student development theories, specifically those involving psychosocial development and intellectual development, provide a framework for understanding students and for guiding the structure and interaction of the academic advising process.

Murry, J.P. "The Comparative Effectiveness of Student-to-Student and Faculty Advising Programs." Journal of College Student Personnel, 1972, 13.

A study to compare two existing faculty advising systems with a student advising system established for study purposes was undertaken at the College of Arts and Sciences, Kansas State University. Effectiveness of the system was measured by a modified version of the Advising Satisfaction Scale. Effectiveness was also inferred from a number of other variables. Several study limitations are discussed. Results were mixed, but overall, they suggest that the level of competence needed for the advising function is not beyond the capacity of most upper-division students.

Nelson, R.P. The Aquinas Blueprint for Student Development. Grand Rapids, Michigan: Aquinas College, 1985.

This blueprint for student development focuses on social, career, physical, personal, spiritual, and intellectual dimensions. For each of these dimensions, the author has developed a series of increasingly complex objectives which are, in turn, translated into outcome statements for students.

O'Banion, T. "An Academic Advising Model." Junior College Journal, 1972, 42, (6) 62.

The process of academic advising includes: 1) exploration of life goals; 2) exploration of career goals; 3) program choice; 4) course choice; and 5) course selection. Based on the skills, knowledge, and attitudes required by the personnel who would assist students, professional counselors would take responsibility for steps one and two, and perhaps steps three and four. There are many arguments for the use of faculty members in steps three and four because of their curriculum and subject knowledge. Given certain important conditions, it seems reasonable to believe that an instructor advising system can function as well as any other. A team approach may be the best answer for academic advising, with each member participating in the process according to his or her competencies and interests.

O'Connell, W.R., and Smartt, S.H. Improving Faculty Evaluation: A Trial in Strategy, A Report of the SREB Faculty Evaluation Project. Atlanta, Georgia: Southern Regional Education Board, 1979.

O'Connell, W.R. and Wergin, J.F. "The Role of Administrators in Changing Teaching Evaluation Procedures." In G. French-Lazonk (ed.), New Directions for Teaching and Learning: Practices that Improve Teaching Evaluation. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1982.

Perry, W.G. Intellectual and Ethical Development in the College Years. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1970.

Peterson, P.L. and Walberg, H.J. (eds.), Research on Teaching: Concepts, Findings, and Implications. Berkeley, California: McCutchan, 1980.

Pilon, D.H., and Berquist, W.H. Consultation in Higher Education. Washington, D.C.: Council for the Advancement of Small Colleges, 1979.

Polson, C.J. and Cashin, W.E. "Research Priorities for Academic Advising: Results of a Survey of NACADA Membership." NACADA Journal, 1981, 1.

There exists a limited amount of truly experimental research in the current literature on advising and, as a result, minimal direction for constructive alterations of present programs. The survey sought to identify questions about advising that the members of NACADA wanted to have studied. There were 340 usable responses to the questionnaire. While no definite conclusions were drawn, the results indicated that first the specific advising needs of the individual student should be identified. The effectiveness of various advising approaches could then be studied and recommendations for improving existing programs made.

Potter, B., and Shane, D. "Basic Types of Advising." Paper presented at the Second National Conference on Academic Advising, Memphis, Tennessee, 1978.

The presenters describe four basic and distinctive types of academic advising: (1) Clerical; (2) Explanatory; (3) Analytic; and (4) Therapeutic. Each of the types is analyzed by content, nature, focus, purpose, perspective, setting, length, and adviser qualifications.

Sayles, L. Managerial Behavior. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1964.

Seldin, P. "Evaluating Teaching Performance: Answers to Common Questions." Bulletin. Washington, D.C.: American Association of Higher Education, 1987, 40 (1).

Seldin, P. Successful Faculty Evaluation Programs. Cruger, New York: Coventry Press, 1980.

Spencer, R.W., Peterson, E.D., and Kramer, G.L. "Designing and Implementing a Computer-Assisted Academic Advisement Program. Journal of College Student Personnel, 1983, 24.

Computer-assisted advising simply involves a computer program that stores and matches degree requirements and students' academic records. The benefits include reports which are accurate, up-to-date, informative, and essential to graduation evaluation. This article presents a checklist for designing and implementing such a system, beginning with reviewing and evaluating the present system to identifying goals to implementation and evaluation. Capabilities of a computer-assisted advising system are also outlined. Challenges include continual evaluation and improvement of the system.

Spencer, R.W., Peterson, E.D., and Kramer, G.L. "Utilizing College Advising Centers to Facilitate and Revitalize Academic Advising." NACADA Journal, 1982, 2, (1).

The authors present a framework and discuss the development of the college advising center concept at Brigham Young University. Following a thorough study of student perceptions of advising, the institution established an advising center within each of the colleges. The functions of the advising centers were to: (1) advise students within the college; (2) maintain advising files; (3) evaluate transfer credit in majors; (4) conduct college-level new student orientation; (5) develop degree profiles; (6) assist faculty advisors; (7) provide registration information assistance; and (8) conduct graduate clearance.

Teague, G.V. "Community College Student Satisfaction With Four Types of Academic Advisement." Journal of College Student Personnel, 1977, 18.

The four most prevalent advising systems have been identified as instructor-counselor, counselor-instructor, instructor only, counselor only. These models were compared at eight community colleges in Maryland in terms of advisor satisfaction, institutional comparisons, full-time and part-time students, and career and transfer curricula students. Student satisfaction was measured by the Advising Satisfaction Questionnaire. Comparison of satisfaction scores revealed a difference among models and between full- and part-time students. No significant difference was found between the two institutions using the same model or between transfer and career curricula students.

Teague, G.V., and Grites, T.J. "Faculty Contracts and Academic Advising. Journal of College Student Personnel, 1980, 21.

The trend toward specificity of faculty rights, duties, and benefits under collective bargaining could unintentionally eliminate academic advising as an expected duty since advising is often perceived as trivial and an administrative burden. Current collective bargaining agreements and institutional documents were examined to determine the degree to which advising is described as an official faculty responsibility. Findings of the study suggest that specification of duties required of faculty advisors is generally neglected in all forms of agreements, regardless of the type of institution.

Terenzini, P. T. and Pascarella, E.T. "Student/Faculty Relationships and Freshman Year Educational Outcomes: A Further Investigation." Journal of College Student Personnel, 1980, 21, (6).

An earlier test of Spady's model of student/faculty relationships focused only on the quantity of student/faculty informal contact. This study had two general purposes: (a) to determine to what degree the findings of the authors' earlier study are replicable with respect to the positive influence of frequency of informal contact with faculty on students' academic achievement and intellectual and personal development; and (b) to extend the work by assessing the degree to which the quality and frequency of contact are positively associated with freshman year academic performance and with intellectual and personal development. The results of the study generally replicated the earlier findings. The findings also suggest that not all types of student/faculty informal contact are equal in their influence on the freshman year outcomes measured and that the magnitude of influence varies for different kinds of students.

Thoreson, R.W., and Hosokawa E.P. (eds.), Employee Assistance Programs in Higher Education: Alcohol, Mental Health and Professional Development Programming for Faculty and Staff. Springfield, IL: Charles E. Thomas, 1984.

Trombley, T.B. Unpublished address to the American Association for Higher Education National Conference, 1980.

Walsh, E.M. "Revitalizing Academic Advisement." Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1979, 57.

Academic advising has traditionally been thought of as limited to such routine functions as course registration and academic record-keeping. Advising should be redefined so that developmental functions are central. It would then perform a much needed service in higher education, for students need assistance in planning academic programs and integrating academic, career and life goals. Faculty and advisors will need to learn some unfamiliar roles and some new skills. With appropriate support, however, acceptance of developmental advising will be possible.

Wilson, L. The Academic Man. New York: Oxford Press, 1942.

Winston, R.B., Miller, T.S., Ender, S.C., Grites, T.J., and Associates, Developmental Academic Advising. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1984.

Winston, R. and Sandor, J. "Developmental Academic Advising: What Do Students Want?" NACADA Journal, 1984, 4 (1).

Utilizing the prescriptive-developmental definitions of advising first discussed by Burns Crookston, the authors developed and administered the Academic Advising Inventory to a sample of 306 students at the University of Georgia to ascertain student preferences for developmental advising. The authors suggest that the findings confirm that students are seeking an advising relationship that can be characterized as developmental.

Young, W.H. "Some Principles of Effective Advising Consulting." In Consultant Bureau Training Workshop Materials, National Academic Advising Association, October, 1984.

Developed primarily as a training manual for the NACADA Consultant's Bureau, this manual also contains guidelines and principles for consultants and two articles (one by Young) on the consulting process in higher education.

Zunker, V.G. "Students as Paraprofessionals in Four-Year Colleges and Universities." Journal of College Student Personnel, 1975, 16.

This article reports on a survey mailed to a stratified random sample of four-year colleges and universities. The survey examined the use of undergraduate students in two aspects of student personnel work: programs involving academic advising and residence hall supervision; and programs concerned with therapeutic counseling. Of the responding institutions 76 percent reported using student counselors, most often in residence hall life supervision and in new student orientation. Paraprofessionals identified as therapeutic agents were used mainly in crisis center counseling. Compared with a 1963 study, the role of undergraduate paraprofessionals has expanded. Concerns mentioned by respondents involved training, exploitation, and the need for research.

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